Library

Trends

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Introduction

ALICE LOHRER

IN PLANNING the third issue of *Library Trends* an effort has been made to concentrate attention upon certain influences which are at work in the school library field. They affect the shaping, developing, and hindering of the modern school library program, the administrative phases of the school library, the types of library services that have evolved in the elementary or secondary school, the research carried on in the field, and methods of evaluating the progress of school libraries in the United States and in England. The selection of materials for children and young people and its developmental effect upon behavioral patterns of youth have, for the most part, been omitted. These important aspects of the subject deserve separate and full treatment in the future.

Approximately ten years have elapsed since a comprehensive review [1] of the developments in school libraries in the United States was published. The article by Stott in the present number of *Library Trends* provides the first survey of the rise and present status of school libraries in Great Britain, and points up sharp contrasts as well as similarities in philosophy and in services as they have developed here and abroad.

Unlike the university or even the public library, the school library has arisen very recently as a social and educational institution in our culture, as becomes clear when one searches for tendencies. The literature is limited, and the same reports serve as tangents for divergent discussions. The date of 1920 stands out as the turning point in school library history, for that is the year in which the need for school libraries reached national recognition. Thus the modern school library has a tradition of only thirty odd years behind it. In this period its growth has been phenomenal in some respects, and sporadic and spotty in others. No uniform pattern of administration, service, train-

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ing, or progress emerges as the records and the research are reviewed. Moreover, so much time and energy have been devoted to devising and fitting school library service to meet child needs that little effort has been available to carry on research. This is needed, to insure that the programs planned are the ones that should be put into operation.

It is interesting to note, in reading this issue of *Library Trends,* a shifting of attention from what has been accomplished to emphasis upon the various unsolved problems. While a great deal has appeared in library journals about progress achieved, little concrete and specific evidence is available to show that much of what has been preached for over ten years has been put into practice.

Another interesting observation on the accompanying review, as presented by Henne, Batchelder, LeFevre, Anderson, and Morton, is the role of the public library and its paradoxical influence in first furthering and then retarding school library development. In contrast, there has been a lack of public library influence in the development of school libraries in Great Britain, but Stott shows that in that country the impact of a traditional educational pattern and philosophy has retarded the school library program. Both there and in the United States leadership in the school library field today seems to be coming from within the ranks of the school library profession. Growing pains, however, are evident in the jockeying for professional prestige and recognition, and also in the lack of evidence to prove or disprove the superiority of either public libraries or schools in providing the library services needed by the youth of a nation. Various patterns, rather than one, seem to emerge as necessary at this time.

The influence of national, regional, and state standards and evaluating instruments in retarding and furthering the school library movement is pointed out in various articles in this issue. Almost every writer refers in some way to their effect in crystallizing the philosophy of the school library, in changing the concepts of service, or in shaping the trends in the preparation of school librarians. The same influence is revealed in Great Britain, as directives are issued by the Ministry of Education concerning plans and training for school libraries. One also observes in reading the articles of Henne, Batchelder, Anderson, Douglas, Ersted, and Morton that forces outside the library, as well as outside the school, are affecting the character of school library service and school library personnel. Several of the writers make clear that size of school and the level of the educational ladder—elementary, junior high, or senior high school—are no longer considered important

in determining school library policies, in governing the preparation necessary for a school librarian, in fixing the amount of time a librarian devotes to a library, nor in indicating the physical features of the school library.

An adequate and effective program of library service for every boy and girl in the United States is the keynote voiced in the writings of today. This is pointed up by Batchelder, Nickel, James, Anderson, Ersted, Douglas, and Hayes. Undoubtedly we have come a long way in our thinking and may take pride in our progress. Just as unquestionably the facts and figures, as well as the research analyzed by Fedder and the realistic appraisal of practices presented by Henne, bring us up short. Some weaknesses are evident, and more would be if there were enough data to picture completely the status of school libraries today in this country and abroad. Great and apparent as the need for adequate school libraries seems to some librarians, administrators, and educators, it is not understood or appreciated by many more educators, teachers, administrators, and lay persons. Sad to say, even some librarians fail to grasp it.

Extremes come to light in a summary of trends. We see progress at some points, and little or none at others. Programs here and there are effective, and elsewhere non-existent. Sometimes new buildings are planned and constructed with all the modern ideas of a functional school library program incorporated, and again there is no provision at all either for a central library or for classroom libraries. Such extremes offer challenges, and leave no room for complacency. The negative side of the ledger includes, specifically, lack of personnel trained to develop a library program at any level of education; want of sufficient elementary school libraries; absence of cooperation in planning functional quarters; and lack of coordination as between the training programs at the undergraduate level in teacher-training institutions and the graduate programs in the library schools. These are only a few of the apparent shortcomings existing today.

On the other hand qualitative standards gradually are replacing quantitative ones; research studies are providing clues for the planning of adequate programs of training; school library leadership is emerging in state departments of education; in a few cases functional quarters are being arranged to satisfy users' needs; sometimes the activities of libraries at the elementary and secondary level are such as to accord with the requirements, abilities, and interests of individual children; and library service is beginning to be expressed in terms of

social, reading, and vocational guidance and as part of the teaching functions of the school library. These gains show the advances of the last decade or so. Research or lack of research will determine the road ahead. With the issues clear and the developments known, new steps toward a more adequate program of school library service should be possible.

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School Libraries and the Social Order

FRANCES HENNE

THE VERY NATURE of the social order in this country may be shaped in large measure by the character of the libraries or by the lack of libraries in schools. The salvation or destruction of our society may hinge on what people do about communications. Never before has society, the good society, required of its individuals so wide a range of knowledge. For this knowledge, for the building of truth and perspective, for the shaping of ideas and attitudes, most individuals will depend primarily on communications of one kind or another. Yet never before has society so inundated its people with communications of all types. These circumstances add a note of urgency to the necessity that the schools meet two fundamental requirements of a good school program that have too frequently been neglected—providing elementary and secondary schools with the wide range of books and other materials that youth needs for the acquisition of sound ideas and information, and educating children and young people in the ways of interpreting, evaluating, and using books and other materials of communication. The school library forms a vital and basic part in these two important aspects of the good school program.

A belief in the school library represents the belief in the right of every boy and girl to have the pleasures, the understandings, and the experiences that come from sharing the best in the recorded impressions and expressions of mankind. The school library thus constitutes a social instrument of far-reaching significance, for it symbolizes the sources of ideas and information, inspirations and pleasures upon which a true education depends. Education in a democracy requires the resources and services of school libraries; the philosophy of democracy maintains the right of every boy and girl to have these resources and services. Although such principles receive the vigorous

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support of many people connected in one way or another with the education of youth, they are also totally ignored or overlooked or rejected by many others.

It is important that the concept of the school library as a potent social force be understood and interpreted in relation to its complete context. Actually the place of the school library in the social order depends upon and reflects the place of the school in the social order, and a description of the former must assume an understanding of the latter. The school library, being an integral part of the school, cannot be dissociated from that school in any account of its status in society. Furthermore, the worth of the education of our youth essentially determines the worth of our social order. Why then isolate the school library for particular mention as an agency capable of affecting significantly the nature of the social order? The answer is that the objectives of education cannot be achieved without the resources of a library, and that, in a very real sense, the nature and extent of the ideas that young people obtain in school are immeasurably influenced by the nature and extent of the library resources in the school. Such time-worn slogans as "the library is the heart of the school" and "the library is the textbook of the school" imply more than a surface meaning; nor is it without significance that these phrases were first advanced by school administrators.

It is possible to develop this subject of the school library and the social order in highly positive terms, which describe in detail the objectives and functions of school library service in the education of youth, how these affect youth, and hence how they affect the social order. The truth confronts us, however, that the literature of school librarianship, both by direct statement and by obvious implication, teems with accounts of the objectives and the functions of school library service. It seems pointless to repeat the principles and practices of school library service. The paramount issue becomes one of appraising how well the objectives have been achieved and of determining what yet remains to be done. The basic descriptive literature in the field has now been with us for some time; collectively long enough so that we cannot seek solace in the rationalization that a substantial time lag inevitably occurs between the introduction of ideas and their translation into action. Almost ten years have elapsed since the publication of one of the most "recent" major documents—School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow,[1] generally accepted as the statement of national standards and objectives for school libraries. This

volume has the dubious distinction of being completely out of date in some respects (expenditures, for example), and of being regarded on a widespread scale as too visionary and with standards preposterously high (expenditures again) for achievement.

The current status of school libraries provides one insight into the disposition of the social order: judging by the total picture of what we find in our schools and particularly in our elementary schools, our nation evidently does not attach very much importance to books and other materials of communication. One seeks in vain to find a rationale for this apparent apathy; one finds only paradoxes. High values are attached to the place of good schools in society, to the importance of having a literate society, and to the role of reading. No one denies the importance of using a wide range of printed and audio-visual materials in the school today. The achievement of the objectives of good elementary and secondary school curricula depends upon such materials being readily accessible to teachers and students in the school. No one denies the importance of educating the youth of our country in the ways of using, interpreting, and evaluating materials—not only for immediate purposes while they are still in school but also so that they will know how to use materials effectively and intelligently when they leave school. No one denies that reading abilities and reading habits may be shaped in large measure by the extent and nature of the printed materials easily available for boys and girls. No one can deny, either, that, in the over-all view, little more than lip service has been accorded these principles in our schools.

The time is long overdue for a vigorous program of action on the part of all those concerned with the education of youth—school administrators, teachers, librarians, parents, and others—to provide all boys and girls in our schools with library service. Despite the encouraging developments in the last ten years in both the quantity and quality of school libraries, we have no grounds for complacency.

The school library is not a luxury item, and yet it frequently has been considered and treated as that. No school having an enrollment of two hundred or more pupils can afford to be without a library and the services that go with it. It seems fantastic therefore that in thousands of schools in our country pleas, briefs, and persuasions must be advanced to convince the authorities that the school needs a wide range of books and other materials. In innumerable places the chances are greater for finding good athletic equipment and good band equipment than for finding good libraries.

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Mention has already been made of the urgent need that the members of our society be well-informed. It would be foolish to maintain, in these days of swift change, that an enduring background of accurate information can be taught the child or the youth while in school. Geography, science, and many other phases of knowledge are subject to change. An awareness of this, however, can and should be assimilated by pupils. Young people must have accurate information for a true interpretation and understanding of the world today, a world in which they are vitally interested and of which they form an active part. Some of it will hold true for all of their lives; most of it will be useful in one way or another. To provide the books and other communications that contain it, schools must have the resources of the school library. Teachers and textbooks, no matter how good, cannot alone supply it; nor are classroom collections of books alone sufficient. Good teaching motivates students to use a wide range of materials. The point seems too obvious to labor, yet the inaccessibility of materials in the schools of this country shows that the axiom has not been translated into action on any widespread scale. One does not have to travel far before reaching an elementary school which contains no material on the United Nations, or on many scientific subjects, or on countries other than the United States, or on numerous other basic topics; nor does one have to travel far to find schools which have some books on these subjects, but books so woefully out of date or so erroneous in concept that their complete absence would be preferable. The same is true of imaginative literature.

Every school building with two hundred or more students needs a school library and school library service. This means a well-balanced collection of appropriate books and other materials, a good school librarian, and a dynamic program of library service for students and teachers. No compromise, even with the overcrowded conditions of the schools, can be justified concerning this provision of a library in every school of the population named. Although it is eminently desirable, and recommended by national school library standards, that there be a full-time librarian in schools with less than five hundred students, schools of this size may have only a librarian who teaches half-time or who gives half-time library service to each of two schools of this size.

Even though many of the smaller high schools and twelve-grade schools do not today have libraries, the provision of libraries in elementary schools is the development most needed. It is in fact one

of the most necessary educational improvements facing the country, for despite an increase in such libraries, the elementary school having one remains the exception rather than the rule. Classroom collections of books in no sense constitute an adequate substitute for a school library, either in terms of the wide range of materials which boys and girls of all ages need and want, or of economy. Modern schools require both a library and classroom collections, with the collection of books in the classroom being essentially mobile collections coming from the school library.

Boards of education must assume the responsibility for providing libraries in the schools. Such responsibility means not only that the board of education conscientiously works for the provision of libraries in the schools, but also that it accepts its obligation for administering and financing these libraries. For most school library situations this responsibility has been fully met by the boards of education, but numerous exceptions may still be found. For example, some school boards rely on public libraries to furnish library services which should be furnished by the board of education. The public library should not be expected to provide books and library services in the schools; this is not a rightful function of the public library, and even under the best of circumstances it carries serious handicaps for a truly functional school library program. Nor should the Parent-Teachers Association bear responsibility for raising funds for the school library, or for running the school library. The Parent-Teachers Association can be, and very frequently is, a most effective agency for motivating school authorities to provide libraries in the schools. If the Parent-Teachers Association wants to make a donation to the school library, that donation should be over and above the amount allocated by the school, which at least should meet minimum state or regional standards for school library expenditures. Not until the schools have adequate library materials and services will books and other materials of communication really be accessible to youth; this statement, of course, excludes televison, radio, commercial films, and some mass media of print.

Needless to say, the materials in libraries should be good materials. The cheap, the false, and the mediocre have no place in the schools. The current concern about young people who can't or won't read has frequently resulted in the selection of inferior books. No mediocre book has ever met a reading need or interest better than a good book, and good books of all kinds exist in abundance for young people today.

Getting the child or young person to read something, no matter what that something may be, just for the sake of reading, is fallacious and dangerous, and fails to justify the process of reading as an end in itself. To read anything may not necessarily be better than reading nothing. Another erroneous and unsafe theory in the selection of books and other materials for youth can be detected in some communities—too many instances have been revealed recently where bigoted censorship has been exercised and certain books, magazines, and films recommended in standard lists for school libraries, have been banned. This theory follows the hazardous proposition that ignorance can only be fought with ignorance. Librarians and teachers must have freedom to select the best materials for their schools, and pressure groups outside must not have the power to dictate what books and other materials should or should not go into the school.

For many school administrators, teachers, parents, and others, the library needs of schools require neither briefs nor persuasion. To them and to school librarians the program proposed in the preceding paragraphs, forms no more than what it is—a plan of action urgently and critically needed, but still a minimum. In due time perhaps other parts of the library picture will be improved, and in due time perhaps the objectives and standards of the school library will be completely realized. Historical tradition and accident have been the primary causes for some school library conditions which no longer are suited to the purposes of the modern school, such as the lack of sufficient space and staff in schools having one thousand or more students. As emphasizing this lag in school library development, compare college libraries with school libraries in institutions having the same number of students, keeping in mind that the school library has more demands for service to faculty and students than the college library. Other conditions are the burden of clerical and technical tasks that limits the librarian's time for the pursuit of true school library work with teachers and students; and the existence in many schools of two separate and uncoordinated libraries—the library of audio-visual materials and that of printed materials.

Further instances of outmoded principle or practice could be added. The great dilemma among school librarians today is how to break the circle. A live library program, putting into operation the stated objectives and functions of school library service, would convince the schools of the wisdom and desirability of providing adequate school library facilities, but this usually cannot be demonstrated without

adequate facilities. One might reason that the climate of a new age might gradually eradicate the antiquated machinery of school libraries, and that modern curricula and teaching methods would render such changes inevitable. The trends of the last quarter, however, do not make one very sanguine, no matter how long and gratefully and hopefully one looks at noticeable improvements in school library development.

It seems certain that school librarians have been talking to themselves too long. The observations in these pages are well-known to school librarians, and they have frequently been noted in the literature and professional meetings of school librarians. In the last analysis, the program for the preparation of teachers may well provide the impetus that is needed. In addition to courses that acquaint prospective teachers with good books and other materials for children and young people, the teacher-training program should include the provision that prospective teachers become familiar with the services of a good school library. Today the chances are high that the prospective teacher will be graduated with little or no familiarity with books for youth or with other materials of communication for youth; the chances are strong that the teacher-training agency will have no collection of children's books, or at best a pitifully inadequate and haphazard collection. The school library functions to the extent that the teachers motivate its use; such stimulation will be quickened and the demand for good libraries in schools will be accelerated when teachers become familiar with the resources and services of a good school library.

To plead vigorously for good libraries in our schools seems a strange anomaly for our times; one does not have to plead for gadgets, for equipment, for hot lunches—why for books? Why does the long loud wailing about the non-reading adult population and about the reading difficulties of youth seldom include a concern that some of these conditions might presumably be due to an absence of good libraries in the schools, particularly elementary schools? If we believe in a society of wise and good men, how can we afford to deprive our youth of the books and other materials that help to build wisdom and goodness? The following seems pertinent here:

The concept that men can catch a vision of tomorrow's world and that they can pursue a course of action which will, in some degree, shape the future to their will is what makes education in our day an important instrument of social progress. It is perhaps not too much to say that, for this and the next generation, the most important obli-

gation of our schools and colleges is to equip our youth with the values, the motivations, knowledge, and intelligence they will need in working out co-operatively the design of a better world. In some way we shall have to provide youth with the experiences that will enable them to comprehend the moving forces of their day, that will enable them so to order and understand the world of human relationships of their time that they will not be lost in it or seek to escape from it.[2]

The writer submits that for the building of these values, these motivations, this knowledge, and this intelligence our schools must have good libraries.

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Public Library Influence
on School Libraries

MILDRED L. BATCHELDER

A REVIEW OF the influence of public libraries on the rate and the nature of the development of school libraries presents a fairly well established pattern. Early interest of public libraries in making books available to schools was followed by development of public library services to schools as a common practice. Access to many library books at the same time that educational programs were broadening and becoming richer helped teachers and school systems to see the benefits to good teaching of a generous supply of carefully chosen books. Public library services to schools were welcomed, and requests for expanded services were many. The public library's attention to children as individuals of many interests and abilities, whose reading interests and tastes varied widely, was taking place when progressive teachers and other educational leaders were pointing out the importance of knowing children as individuals and of designing educational programs to meet individual needs. The public library's opportunity to emphasize individualized reading guidance preceded the school's opportunity to make an individual approach.

Public libraries tried to meet the demands which schools made. Librarians were added, book stock was increased, new library departments were set up, public library books were gathered into central locations in school buildings, and, in some cities, such library rooms became school library branches of the public library. In those communities which recognized the dependence of a sound educational program on adequate resources of materials, the schools gradually took over responsibility for the entire support of the library services they needed. In rural areas this growth has necessarily been slower than in cities, and the pattern resulting may differ from that in urban areas.

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As in any social development, the process has not moved along at the same rate in all sections. Where there were strong public library systems, it sometimes happened that schools felt so well supplied with library services that their own library development was delayed far behind that in communities where schools early outgrew the facilities which local public libraries could provide. Another negative influence was the criticism during the transition period of the school librarians, whose professional education had been in institutions designed for the education of librarians of public libraries. There were also objections to school libraries operated like small replicas of public libraries and not adapted to meet school needs.

Now that schools have accepted library service as a fundamental part of the school program and now that public libraries are reassessing and replanning their activities for use of the funds previously used on services to schools, there has been a swing of the pendulum, resulting in the suggestion from schools and from some libraries that all library services to children be given through schools. If this is a possibility, it is a distant one until community schools with many twelve-month services become common. Parallel to this is the public library's interest in restudying its service to children and young people to determine which of the many unprovided services are the most needed, and to explore ways of strengthening or establishing them. This, then, seems the pattern of influences of public libraries on school library development. The illustrations that follow indicate how uneven have been the effects on school libraries of public library activities and services. Variations are common, resulting from unusually effective personal relationships, from special financial problems, from imaginative or traditional public library or public school boards, and from numerous other unique factors.

During the early years of the American Library Association, librarians of large city libraries saw services to schools as a responsibility and an opportunity and gave numerous talks at national conferences on the possibilities in this type of service.[1] It was the American Library Association president, a public librarian, who in 1896 presented a petition to the National Education Association proposing establishment of its library department.[2] These events antedated the beginning of special rooms for children in public libraries and the designation of children's librarians in public libraries.[3] They were signs of the growing belief that public libraries and schools should be concerned with the educational growth of children and adults and that

libraries were a part of a broad concept of education. As children's library work began to grow, the writings of its leaders were based on a philosophy very similar to that of forward-looking educators.[4] Children should be recognized as individuals worthy of respect. Their interests and varying abilities should be the basis for choosing books for them. An understanding of children through home visits, as well as through every other opportunity to get acquainted with them, was essential to satisfactory reading guidance. An intensive and discriminating knowledge of children's books and a real appreciation of literature were requirements for children's librarians. From these early beginnings the approach of children's librarians to reading guidance has been thorough, individual, and well-informed. It has been sympathetic but not sentimental. Its aim is to share enthusiasm for the best books which are within reach, mentally, spiritually, and physically.[5] Intensive knowledge of books and the opportunity to strengthen and share that knowledge are characteristic of many children's departments in public libraries. School librarians in many communities have long looked to the public library children's department for this kind of book background.

Although the first school libraries, with librarians in charge, date from the beginning of the twentieth century,[6] their active development became evident in the twenties and thirties. Two major factors in bringing about the growth of school libraries were the broadening of the concept of education as applied to elementary and secondary schools and the long history of public library provision of books and library services to schools. As already indicated, public library books and staff demonstrated the values of having many carefully chosen books readily accessible in schools. After these values were accepted, public libraries made it possible for a large number of schools to obtain varied library materials long before the schools had adequate resources to establish their own libraries.[7] Herrick [8] describes the considerable services from Ohio public libraries to the schools in that state, including classroom collections of books, special privileges for teachers, reference assistance, storytelling, technical assistance on library matters, provision of school branches, use of the public library as a school library, and aid in financing school libraries. Recreational reading materials, especially for schools far from the public library, were of first concern in the library's service to schools,[9] although as time went on and the curriculum became less restricted, informational or supplementary books came to include all types of books, and the li-

brary and school gradually recognized that the purposes for which a book was read rather than the nature of the book itself determined what was recreational and what was informational or curriculum reading. The influence of public libraries on the beginnings of elementary school libraries continued long after high schools had set up their own libraries. In New Jersey, for example, where 245 of the 248 high schools had made some provision for library service by 1937, county and city public libraries still provide a major part of the library materials for elementary schools.[10]

The change in the role of the public library in supplying school library service or in supplementing that service is evident in a comparison of the 1933 and 1951 yearbooks on elementary school libraries published by the National Education Association Department of Elementary School Principals.[11, 12] The first shows a situation where extensive public library services to schools were common and where elementary schools depended on public libraries for nearly all of their library materials. An exception was Long Beach, California, where the schools had received services from the public library until, in 1929, their increased needs for materials resulted in the establishment of libraries as part of each school.[13] Other exceptions were Denver and Detroit, where school libraries had been established by boards of education. Except for these, the 1933 yearbook presented a picture of public library services to schools, public library provision of elementary school libraries, and exploratory programs carried on with little money by pupils and teachers in individual schools. Even by that time, the effect on public library budgets of expanding school library services was becoming a cause of concern. The service of California county libraries to schools had increased so much in twenty years that it was "encroaching increasingly on the county library funds for public library service to rural people."[14] This was also the position in which large city public libraries as well as California county libraries found themselves by the late forties.

"Elementary School Libraries Today," the 1951 yearbook, presents an entirely different picture, with school libraries supported by boards of education as the accepted practice and with public library services complementary to, rather than substitutes for, school library services. A large majority of the articles support the view stated by the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association,[15] that school library service is a responsibility of the board of education, and also that school and public libraries should

"work together to provide a coordinated and complete library service to school children without unnecessary duplication of activities." The importance of avoiding competition between school and public library programs is also stressed in public library standards. The grave responsibilities of governing boards to cooperate and the need for school, children's, and young people's librarians to become thoroughly acquainted with the objectives of both types of service are pointed out.[16] "But no matter how excellent the school facilities, both schools and public libraries must continue as partners in promoting library skill, the one in a setting suited to the school, the other in a setting similar to adult life. And the children's room in the public library, with its informality and freedom, will remain the center of voluntary contact with literature." [17]

In some large cities with outstanding public libraries, the development of library services within the schools has seemed to be slow. This may have been the result of the excellent services to schools given by the public library, which delayed the realization by the schools of their need for their own libraries. The development may also have been affected by the considerable cost involved in establishing libraries throughout a school system. In addition, public libraries which have used records of home circulation of books as a measure of service and a basis for demonstrating to appropriating bodies the need for increased library funds may have had some reluctance to encourage establishment of school libraries when it was obvious that such libraries would cause a reduction in public library circulation figures. Schools in most of these cities will gradually find it necessary to establish libraries. If "a co-operative state of mind in the librarians of both institutions" [18] is encouraged, as in Baltimore, the result should be a stronger total school and public library service to children and young people than the two would have working separately without cooperative planning.

Influential in determining relationships between school and public libraries in the depression period was the fear of duplicating library services to children, services which were paid for from tax funds. The argument that school and public libraries might be wasting community funds when each is providing books for young people has gone on for many years. Countryman,[19] Clark,[20] and Tolman [21] illustrate points of view often expressed. In retrospect it appears that the first two, librarians in public libraries, are concerned with economies which they believe can be effected through provision by the public library of all

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library materials for schools. They did not seem to understand that adequate school libraries with competent librarians in each are affording more intensive and integrated teaching service than could be provided by the public library. As Tolman explains, schools at some point need their own libraries tailored to meet their needs, and these would have to be supported by the school. In New York State it is considered necessary to develop both school and public library services for children.[22] Locke [23] in a reminder that "education is not a state but a process" also expresses the belief that both the school and public library must have well-selected books in charge of a children's librarian who knows books and children, and that young people as well as adults should find, in their public library, books in which each can find enjoyment and "make himself more interesting and more socially useful."

In addition to the deterrent influence which a few strong public libraries had on the expansion of school libraries, another public library handicap to school library advance is noted by Spears.[24] School librarians of yesterday were too often trained in institutions planned for training public librarians. As a result, the school libraries they administered were like small public libraries and were not adapted to school needs. The development of a more theoretical and general type of education for librarianship has provided librarians in any field—e.g., in public, school, or special library—with a background for providing suitable materials and services.

A turning point in the relationship between the school and public library came in the years following the statements of public and school library standards, defined by the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National Education Association, and the schools' recognition of some of the problems noted above. A number of city public libraries which provided part or all of the school library service in their communities have turned that responsibility over to the schools in the last few years. That change has taken place in Chicago; Madison, Wisconsin; Minneapolis; Portland, Oregon; [25] and Wichita, Kansas.[26] Furthermore, the school library programs provided in such cities as Cleveland [27] and Lakewood, Ohio,[28] and Pittsburgh continue to offer excellent services to schools but do not appear to be expanding those services.

There has been considerable difference of opinion among librarians and among school administrators about the use of space in school buildings for public library or branch library quarters. When a branch library located in a school is equal in facilities, services, and location

with other library branches Wert [29] found, in one small study, that the branch in the school proved as effective as, and more economical than, the separately housed branch library. The Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association dealt with the matter as follows:

Plans of cooperation between boards of education and public libraries may include the establishment of branch libraries for the general public, within school buildings. Such branches sometimes serve also as school libraries. Certain difficulties must be recognized when adults and school pupils use the same library facilities; the demands of the two groups on the library collection and on the personnel are different. Library service to school pupils thru the use of adult branches is much better than no school library service at all. In general, however, it appears that this service is not always effective for pupils and that the line of progress is toward the development of school libraries aimed directly toward service to school pupils as a part of the total educational program of the school.[30]

One school administrator studying this subject believes that combined community-school libraries can be successful if carefully planned to meet the needs of both adult users and school users.[31] Joeckel lists, as essential specifications for branches in schools, careful advance planning, school buildings located so as to serve non-school members of the community, a separate entrance to the library, and enough space for readers, for books, and for growth.[32] The educators who expect many or all schools to develop into community centers with activities which bring every person in the community to them frequently, consider the community-school library as an obvious part of such a center.[33] School buildings which are located and planned as community centers with year-round school programs are still unusual. Consequently, few school branches of public libraries have yet had the most favorable opportunities for experimentation. Because one or more of the specifications have not been met, either the public library service to adults or the school library service to children is limited in effectiveness. In addition, the non-school needs of children and young people may have little consideration, and children who attend private schools often have very real difficulties in using such branches.

The problems which have developed as a result of public library and school negotiations about combined quarters and services have had a considerable influence on school libraries. In county library systems branches have often been located in schools, and the children benefit

by having more books available and more help in choosing books than would be so without the public library center. Crowded school conditions in recent years have limited the space available for libraries in cities and in rural areas. These physical considerations may, however, have a less continuing influence on school libraries than the attitudes which have grown out of the discussions between school and library personnel concerning library services provided within the school. Whenever discussions are based on a thorough understanding, by the representatives of each group, of the objectives of the other group, mutual appreciation of existing programs usually results, and there is a sound basis for deciding the extent to which cooperative activities will contribute to each institution's aim.

In public library efforts to obtain much needed funds, it is natural that budgets should be scanned and that library administrators should ask whether public library services to children and young people duplicate services of school libraries. Unger [34] and Munn [35] each present, as an idea but not as a conviction, the possibility of leaving to the schools all library service to children. At the Library Institute of the University of Chicago Graduate Library School in 1947 it was proposed "that the children's department in the public library should be abandoned and all library service to children be transferred to the schools." [36] It was recognized that this position had its proponents, said to be many, and its opponents. Thorough studies were recommended as a basis for future planning. The proposal that the schools take complete responsibility for children's library service was made more recently in a survey of the Los Angeles Public Library. [37] However, the resulting reorganization of the Children's Department of that library, announced in 1950, [38] did not incorporate the proposal. It gave attention to strengthening the public library services to children, with special emphasis on plans to equalize the public library services to schools by bookmobiles and other means.

The examination of public library services in the United States made by the Public Library Inquiry reported enthusiastically on the quality of children's library service. [39] It pointed out that in terms of patronage and skill this service is the major public library activity. As school libraries develop, public libraries must restudy their services to children. However, in the next ten years neither school nor public libraries will be equipped to provide all library services to children. This statement implies that at some future date, when school libraries are commonly available, the need for direct public library services to children will

disappear. The Inquiry report makes it clear that no special studies were carried on in the field of children's and young people's library service. Probably no widespread decision that school libraries will or will not replace public libraries in serving children can be reached in the near future. Discussions and prophecies have naturally accompanied the changes resulting from school board acceptance of financial responsibility for school libraries, and the freeing of public libraries from the extra responsibilities for school services which they have so long carried.

In rural areas progress in library development, as well as in school development, has been slower than in cities. Varied units and patterns for providing library service to scattered population have been tried in different states. County or multi-county libraries have been established in some. In others, supplementary services from outposts of the state library agency are being developed. From these, rural schools early received annual boxes of books and special privileges for teachers who went to the library to get books. Later, periodic delivery to schools of books and other requested materials was made. Increasingly common are bookmobile visits of varying length and frequency and regular classroom visits from the bookmobile children's librarian or from a headquarters library staff member for storytelling, book introductions, or instruction in use of books and libraries. Sometimes regular bus trips from the school to the library are arranged. The varied services to rural schools have made up a large part of the volume of work done by public libraries in rural areas.[40-45] Some of the experience thus gained has already influenced the development of school library service in rural schools. Other parts of it suggest possible future trends. As in city library systems, libraries serving rural areas are concerned about the large proportion of their resources devoted to the school-age portion of the population. In such sections, more often than in cities, school funds have been contributed specifically for the purpose of providing library services to schools or as a general contribution to make the library's establishment and continuation possible. As costs have risen, a number of libraries have realized that school board contributions have not been enough to pay the entire cost, or even a major share of the cost, of library services to schools. The question arises whether school boards can and will accept entirely the financial responsibility for school library service. In some cases they are supporting school library service separately from the county library.[46, 47] In others, the school board, in delegating responsibility for school library

service to the public library of the county or region, recognizes that funds to discharge that responsibility must also be made available.

In cities the trend as described above seems clearly toward operation of school libraries by boards of education. In rural areas it was early evident that a county-wide plan for providing books to school libraries would be more economical and more efficient than to expect each small school to select and purchase its own books. The county public library, or some of the other agencies of public library service to rural areas continues in many parts of the country to be the institution which is best equipped—when funds can be made available to it —to provide school library materials.[48] Whether future rural school library service will be chiefly provided through county public libraries or through school libraries serving a county is not clear. Funds, the school evaluation of the effectiveness for school purposes of service from the county library, and competition within the library for means to extend services to those not connected with schools, will influence the result.

Since library service for rural schools is at an earlier stage of development than city school library service, the distinction between "services to schools" and complete "school library service" continues to be a confusing problem. City libraries have with few exceptions turned over their programs to provide complete school library service to boards of education. Public libraries are reviewing their present and potential services to schools, making plans to build the complementary services for children which the most adequate school library program needs from the public library. The county public library, on the other hand, is often engaged in providing the only library service for schools. The problem is to define when this service should be frankly recognized as "service to schools" rather than as complete "school library service." Understanding of mutual objectives as well as limitations of funds are involved. Some problems in providing bookmobile service to schools have arisen from lack of understanding of the difference between library services to schools and school library services, and difficulties in the relationships which grew out of it. The statement on bookmobile service to schools, published in 1951 by a committee of the State School Library Supervisors and the American Library Association Library Extension Division is a useful basis for developing satisfactory provision for schools and establishing constructive and sound working relationships concerning bookmobile service.[49] It is also helpful as a basis for evolving other relationships between the two institutions.

Public Library Influence on School Libraries

Future trends in the influence of public libraries on school library development will depend on the future of children's and young people's work in public libraries. As the pressure for providing school library service has been somewhat removed from public libraries, children's librarians and library administrators are reviewing the library needs of children and on that basis choosing priorities for development of new services. For example, Hamill [50] reports expansion of bookmobile services to schools in the center of a city, and Shea,[51] a program of children's book courses given for parents by branch public library children's librarians. Cushman [52] explains the way in which the children have sought, accepted, and enjoyed their opportunities to take civic action and responsibility, not only by raising funds for the library but by continued volunteer contributions of appropriate help.

Sattley,[53] in a summary of the work which children's librarians in public libraries may be expected to expand or establish, lists many services much needed by children and by adults who work with children. Children's libraries should provide additional materials for research beyond those in the school. They should be "community integrating centers for book selection"—should prepare and publicize booklists, and stimulate and create various kinds of publicity on children's books through the press, radio, television, and exhibits. Reading courses or institutes on children's books may be given. Children's librarians can increase their work with welfare groups, community clubs, juvenile courts, recreation departments, hospitals, "shut-ins." They will have new opportunities to work with parents, teachers, and other youth leaders. Public libraries may further expand their services to preschool children and their parents.

Each of these services from children's librarians of the public library can influence and strengthen school library development. Further development of the children's librarians of public libraries as community specialists in children's books follows naturally from the recognized position of leadership which they often hold in this field.[54] Related is radio, television, and newspaper community-wide publicity on worthwhile children's books, recordings, and films. Guidance in selection and use of all these materials can become the combined effort of the children's and school librarians, working closely with teachers and parents.

As preschool children grow in experience with good books and other library materials, school librarians will find that children beginning school are already at home in the school library and kindergarten,

where they find their favorite books or hear records which the children's room has helped them to know. Children's librarians are interested in greatly increasing their guidance and services to parents and also to teachers and other adults in the field of child care, home and school relations, education and human relations.

The contacts and cooperation of children's libraries with civic and volunteer community agencies can make them communications centers for all kinds of book and library-related activities of these agencies and of the schools. Many opportunities for cooperation previously lost because of inadequate communication should be available when children's librarians can take this responsibility.

To the above list can be added several other kinds of public library services which will have important influence on school library service if extensively provided. Young people's work in public libraries is a relatively new field. Although individual reading guidance has always been a tradition of the children's library, only recently and in a limited number of city libraries is reading guidance and a specialized program for young people in operation.[55] When this public library service with specialized personnel becomes more common, high school libraries will be able to aid young people to find in the young people's program of the public library the key to the solution of many personal and group problems.

In these days of mass communication, it becomes important for children and young people to gain an understanding of the public library as the community's center of materials of more than passing value, materials of fact, materials of interpretation, materials against which the ideas gained through the media of mass communication should be weighed and tested. It is essential that librarians working with youth make every effort to help them realize the importance of the often repeated principle that public libraries have materials on various sides of a question. If the establishment of adequate young people's departments in public libraries could help youth to gain that understanding and to use that knowledge, the establishment of young people's work for this one purpose alone would be one of the most fruitful investments in citizenship which could be made.

Strong public libraries which can give the services that will most influence future school libraries should result in communities where there are strong school libraries. The school and the public library are inevitably agencies which interact on each other. Whether the mutual influences, one upon the other, result in more or in less effective school

library or public library service will depend on many factors, but most of all on the people involved.

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Administrative Control

ALICE L. LeFEVRE

A SEARCH THROUGH professional literature brings to light a wealth of material on the administration of school libraries. This points to problems which educators and librarians alike find unsolved, as they continue to investigate methods of providing adequate library service to schools efficiently and economically. The present trend toward consolidation in government is directing the thoughts of some authorities toward unification of all local education, both formal and informal, under one board. However, "While contractual arrangements for cooperative library service offer a promising means of securing more adequate opportunities than most communities now provide, the device should be considered as a step toward ultimate unification of educational resources, rather than as an end in itself." [1] Such arrangements are not likely to be widespread for many years, and the immediate problem of reaching all children and young people with books and library service calls for serious attention and a thorough understanding of the potentialities of the school library.

The distinction between the terms "school library" and "library service to schools" is not always sharply drawn, and the two are apt to be used interchangeably. Any evaluation of library service to children and young people in schools, and any consideration of the administrative control of school library service, must distinguish clearly between them. They may supplement each other, but they are neither identical nor comparable. According to the definition presented in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*,[2] three elements are essential in the school library: "(1) the librarian, (2) the book collection, and (3) the library quarters." The collection of materials must be organized to meet the needs of the faculty and pupils of a given school on a permanent basis. Yet many book collections referred to in the literature as school libraries are really centers for the distribution of books, with one or the other of the above essentials missing.

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In contrast, "library service to schools" implies temporary loans of books and other materials provided from some central source, with the personnel shared by a number of schools or provided by a central agency. Often school libraries, both elementary and secondary, have evolved through a series of stages from temporary teachers' loans, to classroom collections, and finally to centralized school libraries. In *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*, a statement of principles for school library service is made. These principles are based on the premise that both elementary and secondary schools need libraries to carry out their responsibilities to their pupils, and that adequate library service is not provided "through classroom collections alone." [3] Even the "establishment of self-contained classrooms in elementary schools" [4] will require a centralized library if adequate service is to be provided.

The present patterns of school library organization are legion. There are libraries operating with well-equipped quarters and book collections under the administration of a full-time staff in schools at all levels and of various types—elementary, junior high, and senior high schools and various combinations of the three, and likewise in vocational and technical schools. Lucile Fargo [5] has presented a clear picture of the varieties of school library service in *The Library in the School*, including that for rural schools. It is also pointed out that variations of the pattern may exist in the same systems, with some schools having adequate libraries and others depending on service through temporary or permanent classroom collections. Even where there is centralization of materials there may be no professional staff, and service must be provided by teachers or by a student staff. Another pattern appears in the consolidated school, which may have a centralized library supplemented by loans from a county library. Bookmobile service from either the county library or the office of the county superintendent may provide the classroom collections or supplement the reading program of the school.

As concerns secondary institutions, "Most high school administrators and trustees agree that the secondary school library is an essential if specialized type of educational service." [6] Stimulated further by the standards of accrediting bodies and more largely by the expanding secondary curriculum, school boards in most communities have developed centralized and organized libraries in secondary schools having an enrollment of over two hundred.

The elementary school library also is now gradually coming into

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its own, less because of accrediting bodies than from conviction of its value in the education of children. The thirtieth yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, which was published in 1951, was devoted entirely to the status of elementary school libraries. The Foreword states that "Elementary-school principals and classroom teachers in recent years have become increasingly alert to the vast potentialities of their school libraries. Well-organized, adequately equipped, and properly staffed instructional materials centers are now considered essential to the type of educational program that extends beyond the textbook and the classroom." [7] This is the second yearbook of that body to be concentrated on the subject of school libraries, the twelfth in 1933 [8] having also been comprised entirely of papers on their new development. Its preface included a brief survey of the school library movement in relation to the National Education Association, and pointed out the scant attention given to elementary school libraries in previous issues.

Examination of administrative practices as represented in these two yearbooks shows that there is still a long way to go before the ideal of a "well-organized, adequately equipped, and properly staffed instructional materials center" [7] is found in every elementary school, although much progress was made in the eighteen years between them. Almost every conceivable form of library service is discussed in the two publications, which are significant even though the 1951 Editorial Committee states: "the pages which follow contain opinions and practices which, in some cases, are in direct opposition to each other. The Editorial Committee is inclined to believe that as yet there is no *single* right way, no *one* best answer to many of the problems evolving from this relatively new field." [7]

To fully understand the reasons for a lack of uniformity in the administrative control of school libraries, one needs to delve into the development of this department of the school. Cecil and Heaps, [9] in *School Library Service in the United States*, give a rather thorough historical survey of the school library, and Carleton Joeckel, [10] in *The Government of the American Public Library*, devotes considerable space to the early laws which laid the foundation for the subsequent "school-district" library, the forerunner of the public library. Had the school-district library law [11] which was passed in New York State in 1835 been based on the demands of the school curriculum rather than on theoretical and legislative planning, school libraries might have

developed rapidly. But the types of libraries born of this law were not conducive to enrichment of the curriculum, nor were schools yet ready for "materials centers." The "school-district" libraries formed the nucleus of the town library, out of which the public library movement grew, rather than of the modern school library.

In consequence, the school library, or rather, school library service, has long been associated in varying degrees with an educational agency which, in its popular aspect, is a more recent institution than the school, namely, the public library. In its early days the public library devoted attention to the development of technical skills and practices and built up personnel adept in methods of distribution and stimulation of interest in books among people of all ages. Early leaders in the public library were concerned about the lack of books in schools. As a result the earliest form of library service in schools was that provided by public libraries. Both institutions needed each other; the school required personnel trained to organize and make widest use of book collections in the interest of the school's objectives, and the public library sought the potential readers found in the school. However, with the increasing support and rapid growth of the tax-supported public library, the modern concept of the library profession evolved with emphasis on the individual and on service. Imbued with the desire to reach all potential readers, the public library often extended its service to the schools as the most direct channels to youth, so that an "outside" agency developed a service essential to the effective school curriculum.

The two institutions have also been closely related legally; in some cases, both have been administered by one board. In some states at present the responsibility for public library development rests in the state department of education, while in others it is the responsibility of a separate body. Studies show that "In . . . the rise and development of school library service, two divergent points of view regarding the final responsibility for this service were clearly discernible, one that it belongs to the public library, the other that it belongs to the school. These viewpoints . . . rested upon two fundamentally different conceptions of public library administration. According to one conception, the district public school library idea, *the administration of the public library is a function of the public school.* From another point of view, *the public library is not a subordinate agency, but a coordinate one, also concerned with education, and in 'bringing to all people the books that belong to them'.*" [12]

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Even though the public library in most cities is an agency "outside" the control of the schools, the schools and public libraries have long been closely associated professionally. The first department of the National Education Association devoted to the study of the school library was the Library Department, created through the instigation of Melvil Dewey in 1896.[13] That interest in the subject was also felt in public library circles was evident in a symposium on cooperation between libraries and schools, reported in 1897.[14] Librarians of a number of large public libraries, such as those at Cleveland, Worcester, Dayton, and Milwaukee, presented the methods followed in their respective libraries for bringing books and children together.

Other ties are evidenced in joint publications and in the development of school library standards, as well as in professional organizations. Evaluation of school library practices and the drawing up of standards for improvement of library service have been carried on by the professional organizations of both educators and librarians. The first norms for school libraries were popularly known as the Certain Standards, because C. C. Certain headed the joint committee of the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools which defined them.[15] Combined activity of librarians and educators is seen in the 1940 edition of *How to Evaluate a Secondary School Library,*[16] which was sponsored by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards and the American Library Association; and also in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow,*[17] prepared by a joint committee of the American Association of School Librarians, a section of the American Library Association, and the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People of that same body.

Although we have seen that the initiative for the administration of school library services has often been taken by the public library,[18] in many cities school libraries thus established finally became school departments fully supported by the boards of education. In a smaller number of cases school libraries came to be administered jointly by the board of education and the library board. In a comparatively few cities where the public library is operating under the "school-district" library law, the board of education is responsible for both the public and the school library.[19] There remain a few instances where the public library alone provides school library service. Cecil and Heaps [20] mention such a possibility as one of three important types of administrative control. The California library law allowed for this

type of organization in permitting school boards to contract with county libraries for school library service, although since 1945 the law has permitted the school districts to establish their own centralized libraries, from which service to the rural schools can be extended.[21]

In no other department of the school is there a comparable situation with regard to external control by an "outside" agency. The athletic program is not directed by the city recreation department. Other special departments such as art, home economics, and music are considered to be entirely the responsibility of the school, with only informal cooperative activities with related city institutions.

Regarding cooperative administration by the board of education and by the library board, it has been said that "Cooperative arrangements for support are so varied that no identical plan could be found."[22] In some cities such cooperative plans apply only to the elementary schools, with the board of education solely responsible for libraries in the high schools; in other cities the entire system of school libraries is provided through an agreement with library boards.[23] The agreement is sometimes a written contract, with clearly defined responsibilities for each institution, and in other cases it is merely an informal arrangement. The most common type of cooperative administration is that in which the board of education provides the quarters, equipment, janitor service, and a portion of the book funds. The library board contributes personnel, book funds, supervision, and technical processing. A study of the general practice under the varying forms of cooperative administration reveals that the public library usually retains administrative responsibility.[24] In Pittsburgh, however, the school library supervisor is a member of the supervisory staff of the schools, is paid and selected by the board of education, and has two offices—one in the board of education administration building and one in the public library, where she serves as head of the "schools department."[25] It is in this area of agreement and allocation of definite responsibility that the success of cooperative administration lies, according to Krarup. Notable examples of well-developed systems of cooperative administration are found in Cleveland,[26] Cleveland Heights,[27] and Lakewood, Ohio,[28] Madison, Wisconsin,[27] and a number of other cities where the public library and the schools are administered either by one board or by a committee appointed by the board of education.

Cooperative administration is very commonly found in rural areas

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where county library branches have been placed in school buildings or where the schools are regular bookmobile stops.[29] Often this bookmobile service is partially financed through the pooling of school funds allocated to the county library. In reference to establishment of public library branches in school buildings to be operated as school libraries, Leigh [30] comments, "This practice has created a unified system of libraries for children in the community and has made full use of the reservoirs of experience possessed by children's librarians in building the school collections. But it has frequently created some serious administrative problems." Among the advantages of joint administration that have been cited are economy of operation through centralization of technical processes, professional supervision, accessibility to a large reservoir of materials, and ease of transition from the use of school libraries to that of public libraries as young people leave school. On the other hand, a number of disadvantages have also been noted, such as "divided supervision," "less interest in school curriculum" and the fact that "school authorities do not have as much control over the library program as if they had it alone." [31] Leigh also refers to the discrepancy in salaries, working hours, and vacations between the school librarian and the teacher in the same building, pointing out as one problem of joint administration the fact that "It puts into a school service unit, which for effectiveness needs to be an integral part of curriculum planning and operations, a person whose primary allegiance administratively is to an organization outside school." [30] Willett [28] also implies there may be inequities such as those mentioned above when the school librarian is a member of the public library staff and also a staff member of the school, but indicates that Lakewood has reached a compromise solution of this problem.

In *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service* a number of instances of informal and voluntary cooperative arrangements are noted, under which expenses are shared in some communities and not in others. Such arrangements can be ended at any time on the initiative of either the school or the public library. There have been situations when cooperative agreements had to be terminated, as in the case of Portland, Oregon,[32] where the public library found its service to the general public hampered because of increasing demands from schools without proportionate financial support for the public library. Miles and Martin [33] point out that economy is a strong argument in favor of joint administration, but warn against allowing it to endanger educational efficiency. Furthermore, a tend-

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ency to delay the development of an adequate library program, especially in the elementary schools, is noted by both Mae Graham [34] and Helen Sattley [35] when the public library provides an extensive reading service program in schools. An excellent example of voluntary cooperation between the two independent institutions is that found in Baltimore,[36] however, where unnecessary duplication of activities is avoided through establishment of a Joint Administrative Committee, with representation of school, children's, and youth librarians on the supervisory staff of both schools and public libraries.

Present practice reveals a vast majority of school libraries, over 95 per cent,[37] administered and controlled by boards of education. The literature on the subject reflects the policy that school libraries, both elementary and secondary, should be the responsibility of boards of education, just as are other essential departments of the school. Two of the advantages of joint administration appear to be equally attainable when the board of education establishes and controls school libraries, namely, the centralization of technical processes and supervision. Los Angeles, Detroit, and Denver are representative of the large cities in which well-developed school library departments exist as part of the general school system. Chicago has recently developed a similar department, described by Dilla MacBean.[38]

A trend toward some degree of state administration of school libraries is observed through the increasing number of state supervisory positions in this field. Both Pennsylvania [39] and California [40] have recently made requests for a state supervisor for school libraries, each stipulating that the position should be in the state department of education on the same basis as that of supervisors of other subjects. Moreover, it is recommended in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* that "a program of school library supervision with qualified personnel be included in every state department of education." [41] Such a plan provides a clearing house of information for all concerned with curriculum building. Coordination of school library activities on a state-wide basis can thus be achieved. That the state supervisor or consultant can increase local library development along efficient lines is evident in reports from individual states. For instance, in Tennessee, Louise Meredith [42] states that within the past few years there have been appointed in five city and county systems a library supervisor "to promote and coordinate the library program."

Recognition that adequate school library service is least easily and commonly provided for the small school, either urban or rural,

is widely evident. It is general for city schools systems to have well-developed libraries in large high schools and to secure service to small schools and to the elementary schools through the public library, either on a formal or informal basis. It is becoming more common to make provision for service to rural schools on a state-wide basis, through the county library or through centralization under the direct supervision of county boards of education. California's cooperative arrangement with the county libraries is described by Mildred Batchelder;[43] and a more recent plan in the same state, which permits school districts to organize their own centralized library service, is described by Ziebold.[21] In Illinois the "Community Unit District" has been created through the consolidation of small school districts, which forms the basis for an experimental school library service to those schools thus reorganized. Viola James[44] reports that the variation of grade combinations has brought about a need for changes in the existing patterns of library service. She cites resulting developments, such as the need for a library coordinator in each district; centralization of materials and technical processes; the supplementing of materials from the resources of the public, county, or state library; the interchange of materials between schools; and the introduction of summer library programs. The gains for the small school district are much the same as those in the consolidation of schools.

Wilma Bennett's[45] study of a possible regional library service for the school libraries of Indiana points the way toward a similar unifying of service in a unit large enough to insure adequate support, supervision, and efficiency. The "Parish Materials Center"[46] established in Webster Parish of Louisiana is another example of a method of aiding a number of small schools more efficiently and economically than they can serve themselves by maintaining a completely independent organization. In all of these large unit plans, stress is laid on maintenance of local administration.

Recent literature[47] has introduced a proposal to offer library service to children and youth entirely through the school library. Any prediction that the school library will supplant the children's room in the public library in the near future seems premature in the light of the status of school libraries in elementary schools at present.[48] Leigh[49] in the Public Library Inquiry observed little indication of the school's ability or readiness to provide the whole function of library service to children and youth.

In spite of the many excellent school libraries reported under co-

operative administration, the trend of thought as reflected in the professional literature is toward the school library administered, supported, and controlled through the board of education. It seems to be strongly felt that "The library most closely integrated with a school's educational program and best serving its needs is the one that develops from within the school." [50]

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Service at the Elementary Level

HAZELLE M. ANDERSON

THE MODERN school—U.S.A. 1952—is directed to improving opportunities for children in public education. The concepts involved are those of furthering the growth of the whole child, of aiding him to achieve his developmental tasks at the appropriate time, of helping him to meet individual and common needs, of relating learning to life, of practicing democracy as a way of advancement of living, of developing the ability to think creatively and critically and to take action on the basis of valid conclusions, of measuring growth in terms of changed behavior.

The time lag between the development of such educational concepts and applying a curriculum which embodies these concepts is the Achilles' heel in public education today. Libraries as a part of the total educative force help to take up this time lag. The kind of curriculum under consideration cannot be put into effect without the learning tools. It cannot be put into effect without the support of librarians in various phases of library work—those who are concerned with human elements and tools of communication. Most vitally concerned are the librarians in elementary schools, high schools, teachers' colleges, demonstration schools, and public libraries, instructors in library science and education, and supervisors on state, county, and city levels.

The shift in educational philosophy from a subject-centered school to a child-centered school, greatly influenced by the works of John Dewey,[1] has taken place gradually. It has been pointed out too that "in the changes that have taken place in the philosophy, or the science, or the practice of teaching and managing schools in the United States, the National Education Association has had considerable influence."[2] It is interesting, therefore, to go back to the early *Addresses and Proceedings* of this association to determine what place libraries have had

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in the programs. The work of the public library has quite frequently received mention. It was just before the turn of the century that children's rooms began to appear in public libraries, and shortly after that, special service was being given to the schools. At the Detroit meeting of the National Education Association in 1901, Irene Warren pointed out that public libraries were rendering a fine service to the schools and that this year the American Library Association had held the first meeting of a section formed for the purpose of studying the child's needs. To make the work of the library more effective, she urged that every normal school, and school having to do with the training of teachers, offer courses in the use of books and libraries. Several training schools at that time were "giving courses to the pedagogic classes with the aim of presenting enough of the principles of library economy to enable students to organize and administer the average school library, use books and libraries more economically, and more intelligently advise the children as to their reading." [3]

The training school at Geneseo, New York, established a library for the elementary and grammar grades in 1917. Since normal schools tended to set up standards for public schools, one might have expected to find central libraries in the demonstration schools of all teacher-training institutions, but educators have been divided in their opinion as to this need. By 1927 very little development had taken place. [4] In 1930 Elsie H. Pine of State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas, sent out questionnaires on libraries in laboratory schools. Of the thirty-one replies received, only sixteen indicated libraries which would approximate standards published by the American Library Association in 1925. [5] Teachers colleges are in the strategic position of being able to give teachers actual practice in the use of materials as they learn to work with children, but to date there are few statistics available to indicate how much is being done.

State laws permitting school districts to spend part of their funds for books had little influence on any general movement for establishing elementary school libraries. Beust [6] has said: "As early as 1876 nineteen states had laws of some kind designed to promote the development of public-school libraries. While successful in some areas, the movement was generally considered a disappointment."

Educators did not recognize the need for elementary libraries until 1918, when there was growing dissatisfaction with classroom teaching which consisted of transmitting knowledge that the teachers themselves had acquired in school or knowledge which they could easily

find in textbooks. Since new ideas and discoveries were not quickly incorporated into textbooks, schools did not keep abreast with the times. As a result the National Society for the Study of Education appointed the Committee on Materials of Education, whose aim it was to produce new learning tools on a broad scale. The committee collected materials which had been developed and used by the more enterprising teachers and published them as Part I of the nineteenth yearbook of the society.[7]

Why were elementary libraries not then established to solve this problem of furnishing materials? Perhaps it was because educators were concerned with informational matter, and the library was regarded primarily as a source of recreational reading; or because trade books in the children's field had not been developed sufficiently to meet the need. Libraries did, however, appear in a few progressive schools. Classrooms were being converted into libraries, and in over-crowded situations halls, corners of study rooms, and principals' offices were being utilized. In her address at the National Education Association meeting in 1921, Zachert described the collections in elementary schools as small, inadequately chosen, and in some cases consisting of gifts from people of the community, donations from publishers, and old sets of encyclopedias. Freedom in the use of materials was not a general practice, for books were sometimes found housed in locked bookcases or on the teacher's desk in the classroom, where they could be supervised.[8]

The program, then, has been exceedingly slow in unfolding. We may set forth such reasons as hesitancy in acceptance of a new philosophy, failure of teachers and librarians to merge their ideas, overtaxing demands on the teacher's time, shortage of trained librarians, lack of financial support, over-crowded conditions in schools, lack of understanding, and inability to plan a library program. Leadership in the national associations of librarians and educators seemingly was not strong enough to overcome the barriers. In 1896 the establishment of a Library Department within the National Education Association was approved, and in that same year the American Library Association appointed a committee to cooperate with the library department of the National Education Association.[6] Sponsored by the Joint Committee of these two associations, standards for elementary school libraries were published in 1925,[9] and from time to time promotional leaflets have been issued. Attempts at holding work conferences did not meet with great success. [10] Had the need been expressed by those who were

working directly with the children, progress might have been more rapid. The cooperative planning of the school staff, with the help of the community, in today's education picture seems to hold greater promise.

The elementary schools had no guide for organizing and handling materials other than what was provided for public and high school libraries. Not until 1929 did a book on administrative problems appear, when William King's *The Elementary School Library*[11] was published. This was followed by Lucile Fargo's *The Program for Elementary School Library Service*[12] in 1930, *A Handbook for Teacher-Librarians*[13] in 1931, and Gardiner's[14] *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School* in 1941.

Few states have set up standards for elementary school libraries, and those which have do not agree as to requirements in materials, librarian, expenditures, housing, or organization. Data indicating how nearly standards are being met are generally lacking except in the case of North Carolina.[15] More significant to the growth of elementary school libraries has been the increase in the number of school library supervisors in state departments of education. Twenty-six states have school library supervisors at present.[16] Their influence in bringing library science courses into the curriculum of teachers colleges, in improving book selection through recommended lists of books, and in implementing planning on a state-wide basis, helps to remove some of the stumbling blocks which have retarded development of the program.

There are no state or national totals to show exactly how far the program has developed, but the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48*[17] yields the following figures: "Group I [100,000 population and more] city systems have centralized libraries in almost half of their elementary schools; group II [30,000 to 99,999 population] city systems, in two-fifths of their elementary schools; group III [10,000 to 29,999 population] city systems, in approximately one-third of their elementary schools; group IV [2,500 to 9,999 population] city systems, in more than two-fifths of their elementary schools; while the county group has centralized libraries in only about three-twentieths of their elementary schools." The above figures do not demonstrate that the schools which have centralized libraries are being adequately served, but they do indicate that more than half of our boys and girls are being limited in their educational opportunities. There is an urgent need for a complete survey which would yield

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information toward analyses, evaluations, and intelligent planning.

Reports received by the Committee for Elementary Schools Libraries of the American Association of School Librarians are proof of increasing interest in library service on the elementary level. Since 1947 the schools of Baltimore, Maryland, have organized twenty-three elementary school libraries. In 1951 the Jackson, Tennessee, City Schools set up central libraries in their four white elementary schools, with a full-time trained librarian in each. In Madison, Wisconsin, there are thirteen elementary schools with a centralized library in each. Nine of these schools have full-time librarians, while four have part-time librarians. In the five new buildings, two of which were finished in 1951, the library has been given the most central, convenient spot in the building, with modern equipment, space, and adequate lighting. The library budget for elementary schools in Houston, Texas, increased from $9,000 in 1948 to $27,012 in 1952. In Long Beach, California, the School District has built and furnished twenty elementary libraries since 1948.

The above quoted statistics were chosen from various parts of the country to show that progress is not limited to any one area. The schools mentioned are concerned with centralized libraries; however, there are many patterns of service. Some schools are self-contained, while others have centralized collections which are supplemented with materials centers within the system. In Danville, Illinois, because of over-crowded conditions, the regional library concept has been adopted within the school district. The materials center serves the schools with fluid classroom collections as a temporary measure, until space can be provided for central libraries in each of the schools.[18]

A present trend of school organization in some areas is away from departmentalization [19] and for the use of a variety of materials within the classroom; hence, a number of schools are depending on permanent classroom collections for their instructional tools. Extreme care in the selection of materials and in planning for space would be required if a classroom is to house *all* of the instructional tools called for in today's teaching program. This implies the services in the classroom of a well-educated and experienced supervising librarian. It would seem that the cost of duplicating adequate collections and providing adequate housing would be prohibitive. Studies of adequacy and cost of such service should be made in order that planning will be promoted which is geared to the needs of the school and to the financial ability of the community.

Public libraries are still an important factor in service to elementary schools. Some urban schools are wholly dependent upon the public library and others have agreements for a part of the service. Coordination of service between the two institutions requires skill and close working relationships among the respective staff members. It implies cooperative problem-solving and planning. The remoteness of materials collections not housed in the school is a disadvantage not easily overcome. In a study comparing the use made of the public library and the school library by elementary school students over a two-week period, Blanche Janecek [20] found that "There were 95.3 per cent of the students who read school library books and 9.5 per cent, public library books." Inaccessibility to reading materials in today's world of increasing entertainments and attractions may cause reading to give way to other activities.

Rural areas usually lack elementary school library service, as indicated above by the statistics in the Biennial Survey of the United States Office of Education, although in some states county service has been designed to include service to the elementary schools. Many schools cannot use a public library because it is supported by a city, and, as public library statistics show, many cities have no public libraries. There is great need for study and planning toward providing better opportunities for the children of rural sections. One solution is redistricting of the schools to consolidate a number of small districts into one unit. Illinois and other states have been experimenting with this. Two hundred forty-two consolidated community unit districts have been formed in Illinois since 1947. In an effort to arrive at some conclusions for future planning, Viola James made a study of library facilities for the elementary schools in the new community unit districts. In her conclusion she states:

It would seem from the data of this study that the pattern for the development of good library service in these new community unit districts of Illinois includes the employing of a school library supervisor who is responsible for the coordination and use of all library materials in the unit. A group of classroom teachers with a few hours in library science training assist the supervisor. There seems to be a movement toward the centralization of purchasing, processing, and circulation of library materials. Audio-visual materials are being frequently included in the planning for library materials. Central library rooms are being provided where facilities make them possible. More books are being made available through extensive purchasing and temporary

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loans. The new library program also includes the promotion of reading during the summer months by story hours and available collections of books.[21]

Outstanding in the field of county library service to children is the program developed in Fulton County, Georgia. Each school has its own collection of materials, which is not limited to books but includes recordings, periodicals, slides, and filmstrips. Of the more than sixty schools in the county, thirty-nine now are served by trained librarians. The staff consists of eighteen librarians, a director, a full-time professional assistant to the director, and a full-time clerical assistant. The steady growth of this program since 1936, when it was first started, is an indication of sound planning. The fact that teachers from the schools had a share in the original planning insured acceptance of the program, and enthusiasm, which could be translated into action. A number of the teachers in these schools have taken library science courses and now are serving as librarians.[22]

Whatever pattern library service takes, it should be so planned that it fits the needs of the school being served. In any case, funds and library-educated personnel are necessary ingredients for building an adequate program. At present the time allotment and training of library personnel vary from full-time library-educated personnel to non-library-educated personnel serving as librarians in addition to full teaching loads. Significant in today's picture is the growing number of city and county library supervisors already mentioned, pointing toward well-planned and coordinated programs, with due consideration for service to the elementary division as well as to the high school.

Allotment of funds is as variable as are plans and personnel. Total library expenditures per pupil in the elementary grades in Florida in 1946-47 was $0.51.[23] In standards published for Kentucky schools in 1949, we find: "Elementary library service should be financially supported to the same extent as high school library service. The local board of education should appropriate and spend annually $1.25 per elementary pupil. As a beginning there should be a minimum annual appropriation and expenditure by the local board of education of at least 40c per pupil in each elementary school. . . . Every effort should be made to reach the $1.25 minimum as soon as possible. Said appropriation shall be spent for books, periodicals, other non-book printed materials and supplies."[24] According to the tables published in James's study, per-pupil expenditures for books varied from 30 cents in one

school to $1.41 in another school within the same unit district.[25] In another unit it varied from 67 cents in one school to $4.85 in another school.[26] As administrators and communities become aware of the need for a variety of learning tools, to put into effect a curriculum that will promote growth of the individual child and of the group, financial support should be more generous.

The library of the future will be a center for instructional materials and will reach beyond printed and audio-visual materials to include models, information on community resources, and teaching devices constructed by teachers. Radio and television will be employed as learning tools. The materials will be completely cataloged in one card file, with subject headings suited to the needs of the school. Classroom collections will be shifted frequently as new areas of study and interests demand. Pupils will participate in the selection and changing of these classroom collections. There will be freedom in the use of materials in the central library as well as in the classroom. The librarian will be a resource person on the staff with a knowledge of instructional tools, learning processes, and child development. She will guide teachers and pupils in the choice and use of the items best suited to solving the problem at hand. Central processing and cataloging will free the librarian from technical details and provide full time for services to children and teachers.

The above picture has its foundation in facts. Audio-visual materials are being included in the library, as indicated in printed articles describing library programs. The public schools of Waco, Texas, have cataloged their community resources as a part of their instructional tools. The public schools of Oak Park, Illinois, are in the process of developing catalog cards for teaching devices constructed by teachers. The Chicago public schools have employed radio as a means of teaching for several years and are working, in conjunction with other institutions in the area, on the development of television for the same purpose. The Boston public schools sponsor a television program during after-school hours. The Technical Processes Committee, designated by the American Association of School Librarians, is compiling a list of subject headings which will meet the needs of children and young people. Students from all parts of the United States are participating in this project and helping to determine the most suitable subject headings. Many school librarians have been educated to teach and have had teaching experience before becoming librarians, and have therefore had courses in the psychology of learning and in child devel-

opment. Central cataloging and processing receives mention from time to time in library articles.

The vast amount of materials available makes possible the above-described materials center, but it also poses a problem of selection. The center will house only materials which have been carefully evaluated and chosen in terms of their contribution to child growth. There are many reviewing media available, but they do not always furnish critical evaluations. In a study to determine the book reviewing adequacy of six well-known periodicals for the selection of children's books, Mayme Estes found that bibliographical information and description of the book content were sufficient, but evaluation for selection purposes were inadequate.[27] The *Bulletin of the Children's Book Center,* published by the University of Chicago, is unique in that its coverage is quite complete, it reviews books that are not recommended as well as those which are, and it indicates developmental values. Children's reactions are obtained for many of the books,[28] so that reviews are not written wholly from an adult viewpoint.

Criteria for evaluating the contribution of the library to growth of the total child are not available. Estimations at present are made in terms of the book collection and other materials, expenditures, adequacy of housing and equipment, qualifications of the librarian, size of staff, and services to pupils and teachers. These can be measured against the recommendations set forth in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow.*[29] Frances de Cordova [30] made a study of the value of the library as a resourceful aid to teaching, in which she submitted questionnaires to both teachers and librarians and secured opinions which are helpful in evaluating library service. The child's reading skills can be measured, as well as his skills in using the library and books, but how much growth has taken place in terms of changed behavior? Studies are needed to show what benefits actually accrue to the child in a learning environment which includes a well-organized library.

A step in that direction appears in "Elementary School Libraries Today." Elizabeth Masterton describes an interesting experiment with twelve seventh and eighth grade pupils whose intelligence quotients seemed to indicate that reading scores were below ability of achievement. In a nine-week period of concentrated effort there was improvement in every case, ranging from .8 years to 2.0 years. Pupil B, whose case is described, had an intelligence quotient of 101, was in grade 8, and had a reading score of 6.0, which she raised to 7.4. Pupil B was con-

scious of the fact that she did not read well. She seemed disinterested and lacking in self-confidence and poise, but as the reading program unfolded, definite changes were apparent. She became alert, interested, persevering. Personal appearance improved. A report says: "Now she smiles and her eyes sparkle as she carries on a conversation." [31] Does the librarian, then, do more than guide reading and use of materials? Does she help to provide for learning experiences in which knowledge and skills may be translated into action?

The above-described experiment was a cooperative project of the classroom teacher of language arts, the adjustment teacher, and the teacher-librarian. When classroom teacher, librarian, all staff members working with the child, the parents, and other education forces in the community form a team and apply their composite learnings, the resulting environment will be more conducive to the growth of the child.

An important aspect of the matter has also been set forth by Olson, as below: "An important and necessary aspect of investigations in child development has been to select some particular expression of growth and to subject it to detailed and systematic study. . . . A need has been expressed continually for [the] type of investigation in which many attributes of the child are viewed and in which the individual is studied primarily as a total organism rather than as a source of separate sets of data. In practical work there is a need for a consideration of the child as a whole in his social setting. In such detailed studies of interrelationships as have been made it is obvious that the individual cannot be divided except in a very arbitrary fashion. There is an intimate relationship in the functioning of all aspects of growth." [32]

The library becomes a learning laboratory when guidance in the use of materials is based on understanding of the child, and on appreciation for his perceptions and purposes as well as his knowledge of materials. Success and satisfaction in the initial library experiences will invite the child's return. Each time he is ready for a broadening of the horizon, new tools are added to his resources. True educative experience results if the instruction in library usage is timed to the real need of the child rather than based on synthetic problems devised to perfect skills. The latter approach serves merely as a manipulating exercise disassociated from the actual purpose of furthering the child's independence and self-reliance in the use of the functional resources of the library. Related to his growing perceptions and wider horizon is his demand for having at hand the tools that permit him to investigate. The child learns to select, evaluate, and use materials for prob-

lem-solving. He chooses the media that best meet his needs at the time. The problem may be the achievement of a developmental task, the accumulating of facts and information, the exploring of new interests, the pursuit of a hobby, the striving toward perfecting skills, the adjusting to a social situation, the deepening of appreciation.

The materials of the library are a composite of past and present communications which cut across the strata of human experience and serve as a common bond to understanding. All who manipulate as tools the media of communication in this laboratory tread on common ground. As the child increases his skill in the use of the tools, his rewards are greater and his sense of security deepens. He reaches into his own understanding and finds resources in his own experiences that he can extend to his associates. He offers and accepts counsel and so becomes a participant in the seeking, finding, evaluating, choosing, and applying carried on by the group. As his sense of security enlarges, proportionate to participation in the collective action, so will grow his respect for his relation to the total concept. Sharing experiences with one's peers and fraternizing with other age groups are a part of the democratic processes that provide the child opportunity of finding his place within the social order. Flexibility in its use permits such democratic practices in the library.

Since the library is to be used by the whole school family, they may well share in determining its policies, its materials, and use. Discerned and expressed needs, specific recommendations, the curriculum, the community, new developments—all enter into the selection of stock. The library ceases to be regarded as a source of supplementary and enrichment materials, but rather as one of learning tools. Librarians pool their knowledge of materials, child development, and learning processes with that of the entire teaching staff, and thus are able to supply the needs of a curriculum which promotes individual growth and group interaction.

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Miss James is
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Service at the Secondary Level

VIOLA JAMES

SCHOOL LIBRARY service at the secondary level has developed through various forms and stages for over one hundred years. It did not spring up automatically with the high school, nor was it sponsored by librarians alone. It has had periods of rapid development and of slow growth. Changes in educational philosophy and further understanding of reading through research have also influenced the evolution of the school library program. The literature of the subject shows a gradual but distinct shift of function from that of providing a reference collection of books to a plan which helps bring about alterations in student behavior.

The twofold purpose of this paper is to emphasize current trends in school library service, and to point out problems worthy of further research. While a short historical background is included, the main body of the paper presents modern aspects of services to students, teachers, and administrators—reading guidance, social guidance, vocational guidance, and services to the community. In the summary and conclusion appear the matters suggested for future research.

The history of school libraries has not been completely written; there are many primary references yet to be found which will give a clearer picture of the library in the school, but sketches of the development appear in Wofford's article, "School Library Evolution" [1] and in Cecil and Heaps' *School Library Service in the United States*. [2] The first steps were taken when a number of states passed laws, beginning in 1835, allowing voters to levy a tax for a collection of books to be housed in a school district. Since the laws were only permissive, many of the states did not tax themselves for funds. Leaders in education, one of whom was Horace Mann, became interested in the providing of books for schools; their plan was to obtain state aid for the establishment of libraries in school districts. Again many states did not follow through.

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In Illinois the first Superintendent of Public Instruction, taking office in 1854 was interested in securing books for the schools, but due to the great indebtedness of the state it was decided that personal interest should be enlisted for local support rather than state aid. For those states which did vote money to the school district library, the results took the form of public libraries administered by school districts and supported by public funds. The collections of books so purchased were not used functionally for the students in the schools.

However, as the public libraries grew, their services began to be extended to the schools. The period of 1876 to 1900 was marked by this. Then leaders in library service, such as Melvil Dewey, began to see the need for school collections. They were influential in the passing of a New York State school law, in 1892, which "designated the school library as a part of school equipment with space in the school building, and required that it provide books for reference work, recreational reading for pupils, and professional books for teachers." [1] It is interesting to note that this particular development paralleled the shift in emphasis from formal teaching to learning through student activity. In 1895 Katharine L. Sharp [3] advocated the free use of libraries in her pronouncement, "The first element of a successful school library is to grant free access to the shelves."

The turn of the century brought an emphasis on personnel. The first graduate of a library school to accept a position as high school librarian was Mary Kingsbury at the Erasmus High School in Brooklyn, New York, in 1900. It is to be noted that her training unavoidably had been pointed toward public library work, there being no curriculum organized then with stress on the services expected of the school library.

The literature for the period of 1910 through 1920 showed a definite interest on the part of educational and library organizations in the development of school libraries. Educators and librarians were working for a new conception of the high school library—"an attractive room with necessary equipment, an adequate collection of books, selected with the needs of the curriculum in mind, under the supervision of a trained librarian." [4] There were allusions to the need for a reference library, or a laboratory for collateral reading, to supplement study of the texts. Some attention also was being devoted to recreational and inspirational reading. [5], [6] The ideas of library service then current were rather static, but historically important. In 1911 the Library Department of the National Education Association designated a committee on high school libraries. The National Council of Teachers of English

in 1914 appointed a standing committee on the same subject. Also in that year the School Libraries Section of the American Library Association was organized. Two committees of this section started to work on secondary school library administration and on the professional training of the school librarian. By 1920 a survey had been completed, and the Certain Report providing national standards for secondary school libraries had been adopted by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and approved by the Committee on Education of the American Library Association.

The activity of school librarians from 1920 through the late 1930's is characterized by acquiring and organizing of library materials and meeting the needs of the school curriculum. The writings of the 1920's describe rather fully technical duties, details of management, publicity, "fighting the cheap and sensational in print," [7] the need for a picture collection, the place of a vertical file, the value of library lessons, and the importance of library quarters.[8] Before the turn of the decade such terms as "browsing corners," "reading for a purpose," "guidance," even "mental growth and development," began to appear. However, some of these concepts were evident only in the thinking of the leaders, for when results of the study by B. Lamar Johnson [9] were published in 1933, it appeared that 262 of the 352 principals, teacher-librarians, and librarians considered the main functions of the library to be the enrichment of the curriculum and the supplying of reference material. Only 10 thought the high school library could assist in the guidance program of the school. It is interesting to note that in *Library Literature, 1933–1935,* there were 50 entries under the subject of "Relations with Teachers and Curriculum," 11 of which were found in state and educational periodicals, and that in *Library Literature, 1949–1951,* there were 88 such entries, with 62 coming from state periodicals. The noticeable growth in articles written on this subject would tend to show that it still holds a place in the thinking of many school librarians; and the increased number from state periodicals would testify that in practice and in the minds of many people the most important function of the school library still is to supply books to meet the needs of the curriculum and the teachers.

Significantly there have been creeping into print, during the last fifteen years, broader aspects of school library service. Such terms as "cumulative guidance records," [10] "social functions," [11] "providing individual service to individual children thru reading guidance," [12] and "criteria by which the service or use of the library may be evaluated in

terms of pupil behavior" [13] suggest the character of a new pattern of school library service.

It is important then, that these aspects be studied in order to understand the various contributions of the modern secondary school library. It has always been supposed that some type of service would be granted to students, but the points of view concerning this changed somewhat during the years. Until about 1930 two main functions seemed important, namely, that of buying books and reference materials and that of teaching the use of library tools in concise, formal lessons.[14-16] Such emphasis was normal when money, time, and effort were being expended just to acquire library facilities and materials. But by 1939 Feeney [17] began to write about using library resources in a different way. She was particularly concerned about the selecting of materials that would affect the student's thinking. She wanted those presenting national and world problems of this country, future working conditions, "and last, but not least, [materials] to encourage, foster, sponsor the open mind." Here for the first time, is the belief that library stock and skill in using it are only means to an end. Library resources should be employed to train students to reason, to think, and to make decisions based upon reliable information. Furthermore, they should be evaluated in terms of resulting change in student behavior. Cutright and Peckham,[18] Linderman,[19] Fargo,[20] and Hefley [21] also wrote in this vein during the 1940's.

By 1951 three valuable and different kinds of publications further developed the idea. In preparing the first of these, school librarians of Illinois were asked by the leaders of the Illinois Curriculum Program to describe the part of the school library in reinforcing national security. The following quotation indicates that one of the ways to use library material is "Helping pupils to acquire the ability to interpret and evaluate accurately and critically what they read, see, and hear, [this being] essential in detecting and appraising propaganda." [22] The document also mentions the importance of teaching the use of the resources of the library, in order that the student may satisfy his interests and needs.

A *Planning Guide for the High School Library Program* [23] also emphasizes the current trend of teaching the integrated use of library materials to students. It recommends that teachers and librarians share the responsibility for this. It is suggested that the librarians give the orientation lessons, with the teachers handling the other instruction as needed in the various subject fields. It is further advised that "In

[314]

schools where curriculum study or revision is taking place the librarian should indicate where instruction in the use of library resources can be integrated in the various subject fields." [24]

The third recent statement that appears to substantiate the expanded concept of use of library materials came from the International Federation of Secondary Teachers' Association, Amsterdam, Holland, August 1950. The teachers went on record as "believing that books are of first importance, since they provide the material essential to the training of the individual to think for himself and achieve the power of independent judgment." The group further emphasized its position by including in its resolutions the statement, "As the school library exists for the pupil, it is essential that he should have free access to it and that he should be given a part in its management." [25]

The last part of this quotation includes another type of service, that of providing activities and responsibilities of educational value. The literature on the subject describes flourishing library clubs, the organization of student library staff groups, and library committees of the student council. However, these things are not necessarily new. It is suggested that more recognition be granted to students' opinions with regard to the selection of books and with respect to governing themselves. This appears also in the work of Linderman,[19] Goslin and Gilchrist,[26] Sanford,[22] and Henne.[27]

Although it was evident from the beginning that libraries should provide books for students, it has only been within the last ten years that materials in the form of 16 mm. films, filmstrips, recordings, slides, and other audio-visual tools have been included. Coulbourn,[28] Gray,[29] Fargo,[30] Rufsvold,[31] and Sanford [22] write of the acquisition and use of these materials in libraries which serve students and faculty. It would seem that the current trend in respect to library service to students would include the acquisition and use of all types of materials for the purpose of meeting the needs, interests, and desires of the students, and in order that desirable change in student behavior might take place.

The school library also has a responsibility to the faculty and administration. In 1928 library service to them included only the making of bibliographies for the teachers, and knowing materials well enough to furnish recommendations.[14] In the Johnson study,[9] of 1933, only 24 of 352 principals, teacher-librarians, and librarians thought the high school library ought to serve the teachers. From the middle of the 1930's through 1945, however, Kersey,[32] Lathrop,[33] Cundiff,[34] Coul-

bourn,[28] and Linderman [19] discuss the following ways the school librarian can aid the teachers and administrators: (1) making them aware of the library and its facilities; (2) helping with curriculum development; (3) soliciting and accepting suggestions for the books; (4) sending notices of new books and materials; (5) helping prepare lists for units in courses; (6) reporting student interests and reading habits; (7) providing an up-to-date professional collection of books and magazines; (8) visiting classes and being interested in the method of presentation of materials; and (9) meeting with and talking to departmental groups about their needs. As was mentioned before, service to teachers and administrators is receiving much current attention in state periodicals describing practice. The subject receives particular attention in the papers of Goslin and Gilchrist,[26] Sanford,[35] and *A Planning Guide for the High School Library Program*.[28] Providing materials centers and curriculum laboratories for the teachers is just beginning to be noted. The Bennett study [36] recommends that such centers be placed in various regions of the state, so that no teacher would be too far from one. Greer and Heller [37] recommend them, but with a warning that administrators may not realize the significance of the library in such a program. Therefore, a major current trend in school library service is the attention that is being given to the use and understanding of the library on the part of the faculty and administration, and to the providing of materials laboratories for the observation and circulation of books and other educational aids on a regional basis.

The third important area of service is reading guidance, but it is not apparent from either the quantity or the quality of writing on this subject that it is receiving the emphasis due it in the established library. From the early studies and literature Gray [29] points out that before 1910 the dominant aim in the teaching of reading was recognition and the appreciation of literary quality. By 1925 the emphasis had shifted in the classroom to the teaching of reading by the silent method and to the stimulation of reading for pleasure and information. At the same time librarians were also concerned with encouraging students to read for information, for recreation, and for inspiration. This is seen in the writings of Hall,[6] Arnett,[38] and Witmer [39] as they describe the functions of the high school library. These concepts, however, were considered at that time as being distinct from each other. One presumably did not get pleasure from reading for information. The basis for

the stimulation of reading was to get the student to read good books, or the literary masterpieces.

It was not until the latter part of the 1920's that consideration for the interest of the child began to appear. It was evident, though, that the idea of reading based on student interest was not yet put into practice, for in the Johnson study [9] 244 of the 352 principals, teacher-librarians, and librarians thought the library should provide for leisure-time reading but showed no thought for the interests of the individual child. Reading was from prescribed lists. Finally, when the schools did begin to build their philosophy and curriculum upon the needs of the individual child, it became necessary to determine the influence reading had upon him. The writings of Martin,[40] Rugg,[41] Judd,[42] Smith,[43] and Strang [44] show the change in emphasis from the setting up of a mere reading program to the development of a teaching, reading, and library plan based on the needs, abilities, and interests of readers, and on its possible results in thinking and behavior.

More recently Henne,[45] Berelson,[46] and the *Planning Guide* [23] stress the need for librarians to know the basic reading techniques used with children, and to be familiar with the types of reading tests given and with the evaluation of the reading scores. Librarians, according to these writers, should also know adolescent psychology well enough to realize the developmental tasks to be accomplished by the students, and they should be sufficiently conversant with the books and materials to identify the developmental values in them. Information from the cumulative records of the student should be available, and used by the librarian in order to understand the student's background, abilities, and needs. Reading guidance in all its ramifications as defined today is much more inclusive than that of twenty years ago. It is built upon the behavior which could come in the individual, and upon the cooperation of the librarian with every teacher to bring about the best results. This constitutes the thinking of the leaders, but since there are few articles on the subject coming from the state periodicals, it could be assumed that it is only beginning to come into practice in some of the libraries. To summarize, the growing trend in reading guidance as a service activity of the high school library rests on the necessity to understand the interests, needs, and abilities of students, and to know the books and materials well enough to use them in a definite reading program with as many individual students as possible.

With the emphasis of the educational program upon the development of the whole child there evolved various types of guidance pro-

grams. One of these could be called social guidance, which helps the student to understand himself in relationship to group organizations and in respect to living in the home, in the school, and in the community. The role of the high school library program here is gradually emerging. In 1923 Certain [47] wrote of activity with library materials as a means of promoting good citizenship and group unity, but not until about twenty years later did the concept receive much emphasis. For a long time training for citizenship was encouraged, but social guidance was not spelled out in concern about attitudes toward minority groups, respect for materials and facilities to be used by others, self government, and the adopting and sharing of responsibilities. Now the idea is finding its place. Activities of the school library in this field also include providing materials on personality development and sex education. It is even being suggested that the library is a social laboratory as no other part of the school can be. Such thinking is prominent in the writings of Fargo [48] and Sanford,[35] and the *Planning Guide*.[23]

Another type of guidance receiving attention is that relating to vocations. This is not new to the high school library, for in the early literature it was emphasized that up-to-date information on vocations was needed in both books and pamphlets. The published matter on the subject is not abundant, but appears consistently with treatment of the important services to students which need to be provided by the school library.

One of the newest aspects of responsibility for the high school library is the service it could offer to the reader in the community outside the school. Chaim [49] would like to have the materials for day and night classes for adults provided by the school library, and have them furnished at the time the classes are in session. In Sanford [50] it is recommended that where "public library facilities are not adequate, the school should give serious consideration to making its library resources available to the adults and children of preschool age." The discussion so far is not extensive enough to qualify this service as a trend, but it may indicate a future line of work for the school library.

In summary, one might say that books have been considered necessary to the teaching program of schools from the early days in American education, but that libraries in schools have developed rather recently, and first in high schools. The modern concept of library work has been gradually changing. Concern over library housekeeping has given way to that over services to students and faculty. Service to students means the acquiring and using of all kinds of tools most needed

by the students. Materials are chosen not because they represent the classics, or because they appear on required reading lists, but because they have positive qualities and because they will probably bring about desirable change in student behavior. They are chosen to meet individual needs, interests, and abilities. Library services to students also include the teaching of the use of library resources, in order that the student will be able to find information quickly and carry on independent study successfully. Such training embraces guidance in helping students to read and think critically, i.e., to evaluate the materials they read, see, or hear. The activities of library clubs, placing of students on library staff, and library committees of the student council are included in services to students.

These are the trends, but there are some problems to be studied. What are the most effective ways of teaching the use of library materials to make integration complete? Recommendations have been brought forward, but scientific research with controlled groups may produce further valuable results. The content that renders materials useful needs further investigation. What are the factors in the film or book which supposedly bring about decision and growth of personality? How can these factors be best presented to get the most desirable results? When the activity program of the library is studied, it would seem desirable to check for educational values in each activity. Does each organiziation with its program help students develop into responsible citizens?

The service to the faculty and administrator includes providing a professional library, keeping them informed of new materials, asking their selections for new books, reporting student behavior and reading abilities to them, and obtaining materials that they may want for their own study. The librarian helps as resource person for the curriculum development committee. The organization of curriculum and materials centers is a new part of this program. A problem which bears study here is the organization and influence of the centers. What should go into them? Where should they be located? Who would direct them? Who would benefit most by them? Who would be responsible for them financially?

Reading guidance, another service just coming into its own in school libraries, is shifting emphasis from reading for its own sake to reading meant to bring about change in student behavior. It is the responsibility of the librarian to know about reading techniques, reading tests, as well as reading interests and abilities of students, and to

foster or to cooperate in a definite reading program on the part of the school. There remain, however, many problems to be studied. Case studies should be made on what students read, and why they read. More information should be gained about their sources for books. By what means do students gain information if they do not read? What are the handicaps that hinder students' reading? Do home, geographic, or ethnic groupings have any influence on the amount and kind of students' reading? Are there other influences in the school outside the library which affect the reading of students?

Social guidance has acquired a new status in the school library. Here student attitudes are molded in respect to the use of the library facilities and materials. Such guidance is also concerned with development of attitudes the student has about himself and his responsibility to the community. It regards the library as a social laboratory, which provides the atmosphere and facilities for such training. Studies concerning home backgrounds, working conditions, and organizations of the community would help the librarian in offering it. Finally, vocational guidance should be included as a part of the library's program. In the main, it consists of providing for students and faculty up-to-date, accurate information about careers. One problem for study in connection with guidance would be that of collecting and interpreting follow-up data on the training and the occupations engaged in by the alumni of the school. Another study would be of the community, to identify the main source of income of the families and the types of work available for students. All of the questions for investigation specified above have included not only those which the student of research can study, but also those which the school librarian can carry on and should carry on before the library services adequately meet the needs of students.

The high school's responsibility to the community reader outside the school has not been crystallized. Library services are being suggested for those communities without public library facilities. School libraries at the secondary level are carrying on an active program in helping the school reach its objectives. With further study of the problems included in this paper, they ought to be able not only to adapt their contributions more effectively to assist the student, but to extend their usefulness beyond the school walls.

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Plans and Equipment
for School Libraries

MARY PEACOCK DOUGLAS

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY has been a significant factor
in the development of the modern school program. Years back, the
recognition that the use of many materials enhances the educational
growth of small children as well as that of mature students caused edu-
cators to examine and evaluate the place of the library in the over-all
planning for schools. Provision for the housing and utilization of li-
brary materials became a necessary consideration. Interestingly enough,
this trend in the recognition of the importance of library facilities has
grown from the top down, although other major innovations in the
public school program have more frequently originated in the elemen-
tary than in the high school. The school library, however, is largely a
product of the twentieth century and has in reality come into its own
since 1920, if an examination of library literature and of school build-
ing literature may serve as measuring gauges.

Obviously the function which the library has in the school program
has influenced its location and its physical planning. The fact that
many architects and some school administrators have not fully under-
stood the possible uses to which the library space should be put has
sometimes resulted in inadequate and unsuitable quarters. The un-
precedented building program for schools now under way has brought
these inadequacies to the fore and has led to many improvements in
the design for school libraries. Perhaps a summary of the changing
functions of the library and the librarian is pertinent to the discussion.

Among the vocal pioneers of school libraries were Martha Wilson
and Lucile Fargo. Wilson [1] in *School Library Management* calls atten-
tion to the need for providing: (1) rooms of adequate size, conven-
iently located, (2) good light, (3) open wall shelving, and (4) floor
covering. She interprets each recommendation and describes a very

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formal room with rows of tables at which readers will be seated. Fargo,[2] long recognized as a mentor in school library matters, carried the idea further by interpreting the functions more fully: "to provide adequate and convenient housing for books and other graphic materials valuable in carrying out the educational and leisure-time program of the school, to provide for comfort and convenience of individual readers while using library materials, to provide reasonable opportunities for group work involving the use of library materials, to furnish facilities for the necessary technical work of the library staff and for housing records."

This statement is modified in the fourth edition of her *The Library in the School*,[3] in line with the rapidly accepted concept of the library as an integral factor in educational opportunity. The shift in viewpoint, from the statement of functions in terms of the library to the statement in terms of the user, has been well phrased by Jessie Boyd. She points up the following five needs which elementary and secondary school children have for a school library in even the smallest schools:

1. Access to reference materials which will help them with their immediate curricular needs or problems . . .

2. Opportunity to read books of their own selection for pleasure and pure enjoyment . . .

3. A chance to become an independent investigator with all the satisfactions attached to mastery of library skills . . .

4. The right to expect reading guidance and stimulation and help with critical evaluation of many materials . . .

5. The opportunity to find materials which will help them in their daily relations with friends, in their home and family life, and in shaping their vocational future.[4]

The growing concept of the expanded use of the library both within and without the confines of its physical walls adds to its functions and affects the total picture. The Subcommittee on Library Service to Schools of the Illinois Library Association Planning Board expresses this change in terms of the expected activities of the librarian as follows:

First, . . . a major function of the librarian is to stimulate requests for service.

Second, the library is expanding its range of materials, and this expansion may be expected to continue.

Third, the librarian is assuming an increasingly important role in

the school—as a teacher of students and as a coordinator and helper of teachers.

To these three activities should be added consideration of certain aspects of the organization of the school and of the principle of flexibility, for, in the future, schools may be expected to change their demands upon the library even more rapidly than in the past.[5]

To carry out the library program indicated as desirable requires properly designed space. Librarians have been especially articulate in specifying areas which should be included in the plans and in indicating location, size, and other special considerations. Many architects are aware of these needs and are sympathetic toward them, as is obvious in many of the school-building plans appearing at the present. Complete unawareness on the part of both architects and school administrators is equally apparent in other plans, and it is to be deplored that many new buildings for elementary schools have omitted quarters for libraries entirely or have assigned space woefully insufficient to seat a class-group of pupils or to house a minimal collection of materials.[6] However, the trend apparently is to provide some library quarters; and indeed in some school systems,[7] they have been adequately included by renovations in old buildings and by inclusion in new buildings.

The basic requirements for library quarters are a reading room, workroom, and storage space. This minimum would not meet needs beyond the very small school with limited library-trained personnel service. Large progressive high schools include reading rooms, book stack space, conference rooms, a workroom, librarians' offices, a library classroom, storage sections, provision for housing audio-visual materials and equipment, a screening room for projected materials, and facilities for listening. No doubt similar space allocation will soon begin to appear in large elementary schools.

In general, the early recommendations of twenty-five square feet per reader in the general library room continue to be standard and would appear to be adequate. The over-all size of the room is dependent on the enrollment in the school and the services to be offered. When library rooms have been included in elementary schools as shown in plans in recent issues of Nation's Schools,[8] they have tended to be of a size to seat a full class, but, with limited exception, have not provided for larger groups. In junior and senior high schools, on the other hand, the library reading room has tended to be more spacious

in the average-size school. In the very large high schools space per reader seems enough, but the percentage of the student body which can be accommodated in the library at any one time appears low. In the modern high school curriculum, organized with a minimum of study-hall groups, there would appear to be a need for better provision for class-group work in the library under teacher supervision. This writer would raise a question as to whether sufficient reading room and auxiliary space for such work is being provided.

The location of the library is of as great concern as is its size. Architects, administrators, and librarians alike agree that it is best placed in the area of maximum accessibility and as centrally among the academic classrooms as possible. It has been further recommended that the library be located to allow expansion. This suggestion cannot be emphasized too strongly. Obviously the need for expansion stems from one of three causes—either the library quarters were not planned and made sufficiently large to start with, or the school has grown beyond any anticipated increase, or the program of the school has changed so completely that different physical facilities are needed. In any case, the location of the library will have direct bearing on the possibility of keeping it large enough for the needs of the school. This factor does not appear to have received the consideration which it merits in the over-all planning of school buildings.

While the reading room is the major part of the school library, auxiliary rooms have direct bearing on the effectiveness of the service which can be given in the main room. Until recent years, details of the workroom were given scant attention in the literature relating to libraries. The importance of this area becomes quite apparent when the activities carried on there are enumerated. Probably of first consideration is the processing for use of books and other materials. There must be provision for housing accessions before they are ready for circulation; worn materials must be put away till they can be mended; supplies as well as publicity and display materials must be stored. As may be expected when there is much use of paste, ink, paints, and shellac, a place for washing hands and tools must be provided. A well-planned and equipped workroom is as essential to the well-run library as a well-planned kitchen is in the modern house.[7]

Storage of back issues of magazines so that they are readily accessible is essential if the magazines are to be used for reference purposes. Space for housing these magazines, the majority of which are unbound, will determine how effectively they can be utilized by the pupils and

teachers. Little-used books are also frequently housed outside the main reading room.

Conference rooms serve a much needed purpose by providing opportunity for class-committees to work unhampered without disturbing others, but under supervision. They are used also for teacher-pupil groups, for parent-teacher conferences, for teacher study committees, and for various pupil needs. Conversations with librarians indicate a growing awareness of the possibilities in the use of conference rooms and the firm belief that they are increasingly desirable.

It was not until the middle thirties that much attention was given to the school library as a probable center for housing audio-visual materials and as a place for screening or listening. It now appears that the audio-visual function of the school library is established, and building plans frequently show audio-visual rooms adjacent to the reading rooms. One of the more elaborate layouts for a junior-senior high school library, which includes a screening room and listening booths, is that prepared by Margaret Rufsvold and Paul Seagers of Indiana University.[9] This plan may set a pattern for design in library quarters.

Perhaps the most popular innovation in school library arrangement, especially among pupils, is the use of informal furniture in certain sections of the room. This has commonly been referred to as "the browsing area," but it is perhaps more fittingly described as an informal reading area. The pupils who sit there are under no necessity of taking notes, and they find comfortable chairs more conducive to reading enjoyment than straight chairs and a table. The use of window seats and of upholstered seats around posts are illustrative of the same idea.

The trend away from the all-over-brown battleship linoleum floor covering of the twenties toward the attractive lighter colored tiles of today—rubber, plastic, cork, asphalt—is very gratifying. Along with sound-resistant floor covering has come also the use of acoustical ceiling materials, both of which contribute materially to the atmosphere of the room. The use of color and of decorative features, such as draperies, also helps to develop an inviting and harmonious room.

Especial consideration is being given to illumination, to assure adequate foot-candles without glare or unnecessary reflection. The use of fluorescent lighting has been on the increase, but the concentric ring incandescent fixture is also popular.

The general layout of the reading room is receiving considerable attention, to the end that it achieves a harmonious and functional ap-

pearance. Variety in furnishings and informality in arrangement is to be noted in the majority of sketches and photographs of the modern school library. Especial notice is taken of the provisions for displays. Large recessed bulletin boards are replacing small narrow strips. Glass cases, sometimes facing both into the library and into the corridor,[7] serve an excellent purpose in calling attention to specific materials. The whole arrangement is toward an attractive and inviting environment and away from the former stilted plan.

A library furniture company recently carried an advertisement picturing an old roll-top desk along with its sleek, clean-lined, "soft-tone" light-oak library equipment. The caption read "From this . . . to this in half a century." No better description could be given of the apparent trend in school library furnishings. While some schools continue to use dark oak or mahogany equipment, the majority of those pictured in library and educational literature are using light finish and more streamlined design. No doubt this preference will continue, since studies of light reflection indicate that light-colored, dull surfaces are most satisfactory in preventing eyestrain.[10]

Instead of simply two or more rows of large rectangular tables, school libraries often now contain some of this sort, some round, and some individual-study tables. The size and shape of the room determine the arrangement. Height varies with the ages of the groups to be served, as it should. In the elementary school twenty-six inch and twenty-eight inch tables seem to be most popular. In many of the elementary school libraries (e.g., Raleigh, N.C.), moreover, chairs of three heights are procured, i.e., fourteen inch, fifteen inch, and seventeen inch. The lower chairs are in addition to the number needed for the tables, and are used by the primary-grade pupils who come to the library for story hours or to browse. The chairs of the two lower heights usually accommodate a full class-group. All chairs are designed for the comfort and posture of the user. Tubular furniture has been used, but only to a limited extent. Both elementary and high schools show interest in providing some informal furniture.

Special pieces of equipment, such as charging desks, catalog cases, and atlas stands, show only moderate functional changes—which speaks well for their original planning. They have, however, been redesigned to achieve sleekness and modernity. Photographs indicate a growing tendency to place unabridged dictionaries on revolving table stands, so that they can be used readily by seated readers.

Shelving is definitely being planned for the use it will serve, and it

appears that in many schools, under present practice, it is being installed by the contractor who is erecting or renovating the building. This is not to say that library furniture dealers are not also installing shelving in many school libraries. Innovations which should receive specific comment are the sloping bottom shelf, for greater readability; the special shelving for easy books and oversized books, with slender partitions at six-inch to nine-inch intervals; and the "slyd-in-shelves," which make it possible to house oversized books or phonograph records anywhere in adjustable shelving, with resultant flexibility of arrangement. It would appear that there is growing use of magazine shelving as opposed to the old separate magazine rack. The height of all shelving varies with the ages of the groups to be served, with the wise precaution that the user should be able to reach books on the top shelf.

An examination of the statements of standards in planning and equipping the school library issued over a period of thirty-five years shows remarkable stability in the quantitative or measurable recommendations. A similar examination of photographs of school libraries, however, reveals remarkable variance in the interpretations of these standards. The chief changes seem to be toward functionalism and informality in arrangement, and toward increase in the number of schools—elementary, twelve-grade, junior high, and senior high schools—which provide planned libraries and library services.

Throughout the period named school librarians have joined with educational organizations, with school administrators and architects, with library equipment manufacturers and dealers, and with contractors to achieve more useful and more attractive school libraries. The work in this field may be summarized as follows: (1) There has been an upsurge in the improvement of school library facilities in the last half century. (2) Especially significant is the attention being given to the elementary school library. (3) The program of the school and the vision of the administrator determine to a large degree the library quarters provided. (4) The library quarters, whether in new buildings or resulting from renovations in old buildings, are projected in terms of usefulness and attractiveness. (5) The need for reading rooms, workroom, storage, conference rooms, office, and library classroom is receiving general acceptance in the more far-sighted schools. Provision for housing and using audio-visual materials and equipment as a part of the library plan is assuming importance. (6) The fundamentals of sound library planning apply to all types of schools—ele-

mentary, twelve-grade, junior high, and senior high schools. (7) Informality rather than rigidity is in evidence in the layout of all types of school libraries. (8) The use of color in decoration and the use of light furniture has improved the "eye-rest" factor. (9) Continued adaptation of shelving and furniture to the needs of the group served is providing more functional equipment. (10) Attention is being given at the national, state, and local levels to the desirability of printed standards to serve as guides in new construction, as well as in renovation, of library facilities.

The modern school library has an unusual attractiveness. Perhaps this lies in its simplicity. Perhaps it is in the colors used, enhanced by effective window treatment. Perhaps it is attributable to the beautiful lines of the furniture and the grain of the wood. Perhaps it derives from the general informality, combined with functional design. Whatever it is, children and adults alike more and more find the library a haven replete with dignity and charm.

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School Library Supervisors,
National and State

RUTH ERSTED

STATE SCHOOL library supervision in the United States began to emerge at the close of the nineteenth century. According to a report furnished to the author, "an inspector of school libraries was appointed in the 1890's as a member of the staff of the New York State Education Department to help schools improve their book collections and to encourage pupils' reading." [1] It appears in the records further that in 1891 the Wisconsin "legislature authorized the state superintendent to appoint one clerk who shall under the direction of the state superintendent aid in promoting the establishment, maintenance and control of libraries as provided by law." [2]

With the creation of a Division of School Libraries and the appointment of a school library supervisor by the Regents of New York State in 1904, school library supervision was fully established as a function of the State Education Department. In 1911, the Minnesota legislature set up the office of Supervisor of School Libraries in the Department of Public Instruction, and appointed Martha Wilson to the position; and in 1915 Wisconsin changed the title of Library Clerk to Supervisor of School Libraries.

In 1952 there are twenty-five states and the Canadian province of Saskatchewan in which at least one person is specifically vested with responsibility for state supervision of school libraries, but the growth has been slow, most of the positions having been established since 1940. The predominant pattern for the location of the position shows the supervisor to be a member of the State Department of Education, reporting to the director or chief of the division, or of the bureau of instructional materials and supervision. In the states of Oregon, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Georgia, the supervising librarian

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for the schools also devotes time to work for children and young people in public libraries, and it should be noted that the children's librarians in the state library agencies in Vermont and Nebraska give some of their time to work with the schools.

A comparison of the number of supervisory positions of today with those listed by Dunbar and Lathrop [3] in 1942, reveals new positions in Florida, Mississippi, New Jersey, Kentucky, Connecticut (where there are two supervisors—one for the public schools and another for the vocational schools), South Carolina, Missouri, Texas, Michigan, Massachusetts, Arkansas, Washington, and Maryland; supervisors for Negro schools in Alabama and Georgia; and a change in location of the supervisory positions in Illinois and Indiana from the State Library to the State Department of Education. It should also be noted, as one indication of the changing methods in educational supervision, that in 1942 only three positions were designated as those of school library consultants or advisers, whereas in 1952 eleven such titles were in use.

Several other changes are worthy of comment. Indiana, New York, Virginia, and Wisconsin have more than one person directly responsible for the supervision of school libraries. In Indiana the position of Director of School Libraries is jointly financed by the State Library and the State Department of Education. The work of the school library specialists in Oregon and Georgia is done with the assistance of other librarians in the state library agency. Connecticut is the only state having a "library supervisor for its vocational schools, whose duties and responsibilties are (1) to promote and develop library programs suitable to the needs of the state operated technical schools, (2) to develop a central catalog of the library collections which will serve as a guide to the complete collection and as an index to what is obtainable for exchange or loan between schools, (3) to act as consultant in the general education areas of English and Citizenship, and (4) to assist in other phases of departmental work on request (i.e., to serve on school evaluation committees, to prepare bibliographies, etc.)." [1] Table 1 shows conditions completely as of 1952.

On January 1, 1938, Nora E. Beust became the first Specialist in School and Children's Libraries in the United States Office of Education. In response to the author's request for full information about this position, the following was received:

Under the general direction of the Chief, Services to Libraries Sec-

TABLE 1

State School Library Supervisory Service, 1952 *

State	Date Position Was Established	Title	Allied State Organization	Title of Immediate Supervisor
Alabama	1930	School Libraries Consultant (White schools)	State Department of Education	Director, Division of Elementary Education
	Part-time 1946	School Libraries Consultant (Negro schools)	State Department of Education	Director, Division of Education for Negroes
Arkansas	1947	School Library Consultant	State Library Commission	
Connecticut	1944	School Library Consultant	State Department of Education	Chief, Bureau of Libraries
	1942	Supervisor of Libraries	State Department of Education	Director, Bureau of Vocational Trade & Industrial Education Division
Florida	Part-time 1943 Full-time 1950	Consultant in Instructional Materials	State Department of Education	Director, Division of Instruction
Georgia	1937	Chief Library Consultant (White schools)	State Board of Education	Director, Division of Instructional Materials and Library Service
	1949	Library Consultant (Negro schools)	State Board of Education	Chief Library Consultant
Illinois	1939-51	Consultant for School Libraries	State Library	Chief, Extension Services
	1950	Director of School Libraries	State Department of Education	State Superintendent

TABLE 1 (continued)

State	Date Position Was Established	Title	Allied State Organization	Title of Immediate Supervisor
Indiana	1921–45	School Library Adviser	Public Library Commission	
	1945	Director of School Libraries and Teaching Materials	State Department of Public Instruction	State Superintendent
	Part-time 1948	Instructor in Library Science	Indiana State Teachers College	
Kentucky	1933–37 1947	Supervisor of School Libraries	State Department of Education, Div. of School Libraries	Head, Bureau of Instruction
Louisiana	1929	Supervisor of School Libraries	State Department of Education	State Superintendent of Schools
Maryland		Supervisor of School and Children's Libraries	State Department of Education, Div. of Library Extension	
Massachusetts	1945	Consultant, School Libraries & Library Work with Children and Young People	State Library	
Michigan	1926–33 1942	School Library Consultant	State Library	Head, Extension Division
Minnesota	1911	Supervisor of School Libraries	State Department of Education	Director, Library Division
Mississippi	1946	School Library Supervisor	State Department of Education	Director, Division of Instruction
Missouri	1950	School Library Specialist	State Library	

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State	Year	Title	Department	Office
New Jersey	1949	School and Young People's Libraries Consultant	State Department of Education	Head, Public and School Library Services Bureau
New York	1904	Supervisor of School Libraries	State Department of Education, Div. of Secondary Education	Chief, Bureau of Instructional Supervision
	1924	Supervisor of School Libraries	Division of Elementary Education	Chief, Bureau of Instructional Supervision
North Carolina	1930	School Library Adviser	State Department of Education	Director, Division of Instructional Service
Oregon	1939-40 † 1943	School Library Specialist	State Library	State Librarian
South Carolina	1946	Supervisor of Library Services	State Department of Education	Chief, Division of Instruction
Tennessee	1932	School Library Supervisor	State Department of Education	Director, Instructional Materials and Library Services
Texas		Director of School Libraries	State Department of Education	
Virginia	1923	Supervisor of School Libraries and Textbooks	State Department of Education	State Superintendent of Public Instruction
Washington	1948	Consultant, Instructional Materials Services	State Department of Public Instruction	State Superintendent of Public Instruction
Wisconsin	1915	Supervisor of School Libraries	State Department of Education, Library Division	Director, Division of Supervision

* Source: Information received from state or national school library supervisors in response to a questionnaire sent by the author of this article.

† Temporary appointment for ten months from September 1939 to June 1940.

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tion, the Specialist serves as a consultant to staff members of the Office of Education, school superintendents, members of school boards, trustees of public libraries, library administrators, State departments of education, State library agencies, State and Federal Government officials, and professional organizations concerned with library service for children and young people. (The term "School and children's libraries" includes the libraries in both public and private schools of the elementary and secondary level, and also libraries and departments for children and young people maintained by public libraries.)

The objective of the Specialist in School and Children's Libraries is to promote and assist in the extension and improvement of library service for children and young people. Specifically, the specialist is responsible for such activities as the following:

Independently or in cooperation with others to plan and conduct studies and investigations of a professional and scholarly character in the field of library reading by and for children and young people, and in administration of and the rendition of services by school libraries, children's libraries and young people's libraries, and to prepare the results of such studies and investigations for publication

To apply the results of original studies and investigations to the solution of current problems in the field of school and children's libraries

To plan and lead conferences and institutes on library problems including the in-service training of school and children's library personnel

To establish and maintain cooperative working relationships with professional organizations in the field of library service for children and young people, with staff members in the Office of Education and with Governmental agencies and lay organizations interested in and affected by services of libraries to children and young people

To stimulate cooperative experimental studies and demonstrations in the field of children's reading and in the improved techniques, management, and new services in school and children's libraries

To inspect for purposes of research and information, the operation and services of individual libraries and to evaluate their programs

To conduct or participate in conducting surveys of school and children's libraries

To address meetings and conventions of professional and lay organizations on the problems, the development, and the services of school and children's libraries.[1]

The numerous publications of the Specialist in School and Children's Libraries, which cover many areas, include compilations of

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school library statistics, booklists and bibliographies, articles on elementary libraries and on national trends in school library service, and items for stimulating interest in children's and young people's reading. A recent workshop on supervision, jointly planned by the state school library supervisors' group and the Specialist in the Services to Libraries Section, was held on June 26-27, 1952 at the U.S. Office of Education, and attended by city, county, and state supervisors.

As stated by Dunbar and Lathrop:[3] "Supervisory activities are directed toward the improvement and extension of adequate school-library service throughout the state." Douglas[4] divides the work into three main categories: the interpretation, the improvement, and the extension of library service.

While the printed literature on state school library supervision is limited in amount, there are several statements which treat its purposes. The Extension Board of the American Library Association[5] and the U.S. Office of Education have both prepared printed or mimeographed information on the state library agencies which include information about the activities of the supervisor in relation to the library program in the school. In describing what the state provides for the school library, Fargo[6] quotes the functions as listed in the above brochure prepared by the American Library Association, and elaborates on such services as state aid, booklists, publications, standards, certification, professional education activities, field work, advisory service, and cooperation with other agencies.

One of the most significant analyses of the work of the supervisor appeared in *School Libraries For Today and Tomorrow*, which states at length:

It is recommended that a program of school library supervision with qualified personnel be included in every state department of education to the end that more adequate library opportunity for every child may be attained. The state director of the school libraries program should have the responsibility for:

1. Interpretation of school library service, the adaptation of national school library standards to make them consistent with the state program, and the promotion of continual qualitative and quantitative improvements in school library service.

2. Evaluation of school libraries and stimulation of every school, elementary and secondary, to reach or exceed state and national standards.

3. Interpretation of state laws and regulations regarding school libraries.

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4. Cooperation with other education and library agencies and departments of the state and with institutions responsible for the education of teachers and librarians.

5. Provision for information, advice, and aid to school librarians, other teachers, and administrators through school visits, conferences, and correspondence on problems related to school libraries.

6. Preparation and distribution of materials which interpret the work of the school library and promote improved library support and service.

7. Collection and organization of statistical and factual data about school libraries in the state.

8. Encouragement of school librarians to participate in local, state, and national professional organizations and activities.[7]

The report prepared by the State Professional Committee of the School Library Association of California [8] also includes a list of objectives of the state advisory service, and then proceeds to a detailed job analysis involving four major areas: instructional duties, advisory duties, evaluative duties, and planning duties.

While all of the descriptions of the objectives of state school library supervision which have appeared in the past fifteen or twenty years are still useful, the following, given in a report by Fannie Schmidt, School Libraries Consultant in Alabama, at the regional meeting of the Alabama Library Association in the fall of 1951, is included here because it illustrates today's increasing emphasis on work with groups:

1. Working with school administrators, supervisors, librarians and teachers, in local school systems and individual schools, on the job, and in in-service education programs, on problems of selection, organization, and use of instructional materials.

2. Working with school librarians [i.e.] (a) working with the librarians and with other members of the State Department of Education in planning and directing work conferences . . . , (b) working with individual librarians on the job to help them in identifying, analyzing, and striving to solve local problems, (c) working with groups of librarians in identifying, analyzing, and attacking common problems; and in planning programs of work designed not only to improve their own job performance, but to spread and strengthen interest in school libraries and to improve the instructional program in the schools, (d) working closely with the Department of School Libraries of the Alabama Education Association, as an active member and often times as a consultant, (e) maintaining files of information about the school librarians, (f) advising with librarians and school administrators re-

garding placement, (g) interpreting to non-library school personnel, library needs and good library policies and practices.

3. Working with other members of the State Department of Education on the development of the total program, preparation of materials, etc.

4. Working with teacher-education institutions, on programs of pre-service education for teachers and librarians.

5. Working with lay groups, especially parent-teacher groups, on the development of school library service and on programs of home reading and the building of home libraries.

6. Working with state, regional and national professional committees and organizations; as the American Association of School Librarians, and the Southern States Work conference, and others.[9]

The value of state supervision must be measured in terms of improved school library service. Douglas [4] says that "Even a superficial consideration of statistical data will show the marked and rapid growth [of school libraries] in the states with supervisors and with few exceptions the more limited development in many of the others"; while Mildred Batchelder [10] maintains that "many good school libraries can be found in states without state school library supervisors, but the 25 states and one province with such leadership have a higher general level of services than most states without supervisors."

Although the amount of evidence directly pointing to gains made by the states having school library supervisors is limited, the annual reports of those officers provide an infinite amount of material for future use. Much more will be accessible when plans are completed for the collection of uniform statistics in all states, and when more research studies are made and the results published. In the meantime there is sufficient ground to warrant the employment of school library supervisory staffs in all states.

Two significant summaries of the recent activities in school library supervision were prepared by Batchelder,[10, 11] in 1949 and 1950. Unfortunately these summaries, which appeared in the *A.L.A. Bulletin,* do not include reports from all states with supervisors. Nevertheless, there is further proof of accomplishment here.

One of the activities on which the state supervisors have concentrated in the past few years is the improvement or the establishment of libraries in elementary schools. An authority has stated: "A resumé of statistics on school libraries between 1925 and 1930 will show virtually no elementary school libraries and high school

libraries scattered for the most part in larger population centers. This was the condition that faced the early state school library supervisor who recognized from the beginning that effective library service in the high school is dependent upon good library service in the elementary school." [4] Recent reports from the supervisors in all states indicate new trends in the development of elementary school libraries.

Batchelder supplies the following notes of interest: "From the state of Washington comes the report that 'the term "classroom libraries" is being exploded. . . .' The first budget for elementary libraries in Houston, Tex., has been approved. . . . Georgia comments on elementary school library programs in Fulton County, which has 12 new and three remodeled elementary libraries. . . . Kentucky has adopted standards for both elementary and high school libraries during the past year. . . . A minimum 'Program of Library Service for Connecticut Children and Youth' was prepared for the Connecticut State Planning Committee for the White House Conference on Children and Youth." [10]

The most crucial issue facing all supervisors today is described by the Florida supervisor as the "need for good school librarians, trained and experienced in curriculum, human growth and development and a broad knowledge of materials and the functions of a school library." [1] Considering the urgency and size of this need, it is not surprising to find all of the supervisors intensifying their efforts toward certification, recruitment, cooperation with library schools and teacher training agencies with library science programs, as well as various kinds of pre-service and in-service educational programs for school librarians. Louisiana notes that having one requirement in library science for the certification of all school librarians is a current trend in that state,[1] and in 1950 Minnesota announced new certification standards and a new training program for school librarians based on this principle.[12] Some of the progress which Tennessee has made in the preparation of school librarians is due to grants from the General Education Board and the State Department of Education.[1] No state with a supervisor has been without at least one yearly workshop, institute, conference, or district meeting for the teachers without library training who have had library assignments thrust at them. Whether this pattern continues into the future depends primarily on the number of qualified school librarians that the colleges are able to produce. The supervisors in New York are continuing their efforts to interpret the needs of the school library to the library schools and library science departments in the colleges of the state. In South Caro-

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lina, the standards recommend that the schools employ and pay the librarians for at least an additional month beyond the school term, while Virginia suggests the employment of librarians on a twelve-month basis in all schools that employ principals on that arrangement.

Among the other states in which new ideas are being tried is Michigan, where several pilot or demonstration school libraries have been planned for the purpose of enabling school administrators, school board members, and other interested laymen to see a good school library in action. Indiana has worked out a cooperative arrangement between the State Teachers College and the State Department of Education whereby an instructor of library science has been released from her teaching duties one day a week to provide limited field service to the schools in nineteen counties in the area near the college. The State Department of Education pays her travel expenses. Presumably there will be other such ventures, since the state legislature has authorized the State Department of Public Instruction to cooperate with the state institutions offering library science programs in providing school library field consultants. The possibility of developing centers of teaching or instructional materials along with the consultant service is also being considered.[1] In similar vein, the Oregon supervisor says that a recent study of elementary and secondary education in that state commented on the lack of regional distribution centers for books and other materials. The supervisor in Mississippi is basing plans for the growth of school libraries on a state-wide survey sponsored by the State Department of Education, the Mississippi Library Commission, and the University of Mississippi and financed by a grant from the General Education Board. Illinois and Massachusetts are but two of the states where the supervisors are participating actively in recommendations for new school buildings. The supervisor of North Carolina attends about thirty-five of the administrative conferences held each fall for principals, supervisors, and superintendents.

The many promotional activities of the supervisors, including their desire to interpret the school library idea and to develop effective leadership, may not always be as obvious as some of the above descriptions would indicate. Often, however, they are responsible for new professional organizations of school librarians, for the appointment of city and county school library supervisors, for the inclusion of librarians on state and city curriculum committees, and above all, for an increased understanding of the school library idea.

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Standards and Certification

MILDRED L. NICKEL

WHY ARE STANDARDS for school libraries necessary? Who is responsible for the formulation of school library standards? What are the requirements for the training of school librarians? How many books should there be in a school library? How much money should be spent each year for the purchase of school library materials? Is it necessary to have a separate room as a library? How many pupils should it seat? Questions similar to these are typical of the many asked by school administrators and teachers as well as librarians. The value of a good school library program is no longer questioned by educators, and the demand for school librarians far exceeds the supply today. The library now plays a major role in the teaching and learning processes, with its ultimate goals being identical with those of the school.

Standards for school library service have been formulated for only one major purpose—to provide an adequate program, with sufficient facilities, to meet the needs of the pupils and teachers of the school of which it is a part. It is commonly agreed that they should be used to stimulate improvement and should represent ideals to be attained, not ends in themselves. They can present a challenge for constructive work and should never be viewed with discouragement, even if the school library program is below average. The acceptance of poor practice or the consideration of goals as unattainable will result in an inadequate program. The application of standards, or the measurement of the school against standards, should be a continuous process interpreted as a part of the general educational program of the school.

Most regional accrediting agencies and state departments of education have established standards which are used in evaluating the libraries of accredited schools. The earliest for high school libraries were

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entitled *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes*,[1] and were also known as the Certain Report, from the name of the chairman of the committee responsible for the survey on which the standards were based. That committee was appointed by the National Education Association, and its report was accepted by that organization in 1918. The standards, and their 1932 supplement, were also officially adopted by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1918. They had a great deal of influence on the development of school libraries and helped amazingly in raising the level of support, organization, and service.

All early standards were of a quantitative nature, setting up specific numerical measurements. Requirements were laid down covering the extent of the book collection, number of pupils to be accommodated, budget, size of staff, training of staff in terms of credit hours in library science, and dimensions and location of quarters. While it is true that some factors lend themselves to measurement by count, it was found that the criteria adopted were so inflexible that many times they tended to restrict or limit library growth. While quantitative standards are easy to enforce, they have a place only if they are interpreted as minimum rather than maximum goals. By the late 1920's there was dissatisfaction with this kind of standard in all areas of education, with the realization that quality rather than quantity was of prime importance. Implied in the new philosophy is the assumption that the school library can be evaluated validly only in relation to the objectives of its school and cannot be isolated from the total school picture. For instance, it was found that the mere ownership of library materials was not a valid criterion, and that the use of these materials was the important item to be considered. In 1933 the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards[2] was organized, whose purpose was to study the school as a whole in terms of quality, not quantity. Part of its basic philosophy was, and is today, that the library could not be treated as a separate part of the school, since its activities should be integrated with all phases of the school's organization and activities. Libraries therefore were affected by its evaluative criteria, drawn up in such a way that each section may be scored numerically and then translated into graphic form. The committee felt that the best evaluation is a self-evaluation made by the entire staff, both professional and non-professional, this to be reviewed by a visiting committee of experienced and well-prepared professional workers in the field of education. An annual check can record progress from year to year.

The practice of using the *Evaluative Criteria* [2] as supplementary to quantitative standards now is fairly general.

Qualitative standards have been found to be more flexible than others, since they are expressed in terms of the needs of the school. In the case of the library the basis for requirements is its function, disregarding the size of the school. They are difficult to enforce because they are indefinite and many times must be interpreted in a quantitative way. Then, too, the personal element affects the result, depending upon the attitude and knowledge of the individual interpreting the standards as well as the program.

Since the publication of the Certain Report there have been marked improvements in school library programs as well as in the number of school libraries. Also, the norms affecting them have been raised. State departments of education have revised their standards from time to time, usually in line with those of the regional accrediting agencies. In 1945 the American Library Association's Committee on Post-War Planning published *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*.[3] This was a combination of quantitative measuring sticks and qualitative statements about the educational functions of the library. Stress was placed on the necessity for local adjustments. The statement was timely, coming as it did when communities were reconsidering their educational programs in the years following the war. Quantitative standards are summarized at the end, with entire chapters devoted to discussions of the general topics of service, personnel, resources, housing, and administration. Significant, too, is the fact that these standards apply to elementary as well as secondary schools. They have borne fruit and are considered authoritative statements on the varied aspects of school library service, representing as they do the pooled judgments of school library specialists from all over the country.

More recently *A Planning Guide for the High School Library Program* [4] was published. It is a manual with perforated pages and with forms to be filled in with statistics and other pertinent information. Several types of evaluation are possible in using the manual, to answer the questions: How good is the program? To what extent is it meeting the needs? Answers that give facts and evidence as well as personal opinions are used. The guide covers all phases of the school library program: background information about the community, the school, and the library; activities and services; the use of the library; the staff; the collection; the budget; quarters and equipment; and plans for improvement.

One of the most significant recent tools of evaluation, in addition to the planning guide, is the Local Area Consensus Study of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program.[5] This state study, when completed, will be in nineteen parts. There will be a project for each subject and service area of the secondary school. Each project is designed to "stand on its own" and can be conducted as a single study, or with others, and over an extended period of time. The project dealing with the library program was one of the first to be published and is in three sections, or inventories. The first inventory asks the question, *What Do You Think About Our School Library Program?* [6] The second asks, *In What Respects Should We Strengthen Our School Library Program?* [7] And the third asks *What Should We Do to Strengthen Our School Library Program?* [8] Basic to the understanding of this study is the assumption that the best possible program will endure to the degree that its purposes and program are comprehended, accepted, and supported by all teachers in all subjects and service areas and by patrons and pupils as well. The inventories are filled out by these three groups, and the points on which differences of opinion exist can be taken up in discussions by the groups. Following the acceptance of the plans, action on improvement can be initiated. The study is made up of forty-two basic principles to be checked, rather than quantitative statements.

Requirements for the professional education of school librarians have progressively improved in recent years. Since the librarian is also a teacher, most states require the same preparation in professional education as that of other teachers. In other words, library science is more and more being considered a teaching field, on an equal basis with English, social studies, science and mathematics. There are still some standards which stipulate the professional training of the librarian in terms of the ratio of the hours of training in library science to the enrollment of the school. There is no other phase of school service in which such confusion in preparation requirements exists, and job analyses do not support such a pattern today. It is now generally agreed that the number of pupils in a school is not a valid measuring stick for the need of professional training of the librarian. More important is the amount of library work involved in school assignments and the attendance in the library itself, plus the activities connected with the selection of materials and the circulation of them. In addition, the following factors need to be considered: type of school, size of collection, housing facilities (number of rooms, whether or not the

library functions as a study hall, etc.), the philosophy of the total school program, and the program of library instruction. Technical processes such as cataloging, classification, ordering, and processing are necessary, but the amount of time devoted to them should be minimized in favor of closer coordination between the use of materials and the instructional program. In line with this philosophy, the *Evaluative Criteria* asks, "How adequate are the provisions for the library staff?" rather than, "How many hours in library science does the librarian have?" The answer, then, is given in the light of the school's program.

The chief question, when there is a difference in the training required of a part-time and a full-time librarian, seems to be, "How large should a school be before it needs a full-time librarian?" The usual enrollment figure used is 500, but accrediting agencies are faced with the problem of justifying this arbitrary figure. Administrators will question the fact that a school of 475 pupils has a part-time librarian, while one of 525 pupils must have a full-time librarian. The trend apparently is toward standards that will require all school librarians to have the same training in their field as is required of other members of the faculty. There is no question, however, of the value of a degree in library science, which provides the librarian with a broad background and better prepares him to supervise a functional program with its many ramifications, especially in a large school. Examination of the certification standards on the following table shows graphically the present trends, although there is still wide variance in the requirements for training in library science.

TABLE 1

Requirements for Certification of School Librarians—by State *

State	Reg. Assn. †	Kind of Certificate	Bachelor's Degree	Hours in Education Elem.	Sec.	Requirements in Library Science
Alabama	SA	Teacher	Yes	30	24	Major—24 hrs Minor—18 hrs
Arizona	NCA	Librarian	Yes	24	24	12 hrs
Arkansas	NCA	None				
California		Librarian	Yes	15	15	24 hrs
Colorado	NCA	None				
Connecticut	NEA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	Full-time—30 hrs Part-time—15 hrs
Delaware	MSA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	18 hrs

TABLE 1 (continued)

State	Reg. Assn.†	Kind of Certificate	Bachelor's Degree	Hours in Education Elem.	Sec.	Requirements in Library Science
District of Columbia	MSA	Librarian	Yes	24	24	SrHS—MS (30 hrs) JrHS—BS (30 hrs)
Florida	SA	Librarian		14	14	30 hrs
Georgia	SA	Teacher		20	20	Full-time—MS Part-time—13½ hrs
Idaho	NWA	Librarian	No			6 hrs
Illinois	NCA	Teacher	Yes	16	16	16 hrs
Indiana	NCA	Librarian	Yes	15	15	18 hrs
Iowa	NCA	Librarian	Yes	15	15	Major—30 hrs or MS
Kansas	NCA	Teacher	Yes	18	18	8, 16, or 24 hrs
Kentucky	SA	Librarian	Yes	12	12	BS or MS
Louisiana	SA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	500 pupils—24 hrs Less—12 hrs
Maine	NEA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	1 year
Maryland	MSA	Teacher	Yes	16	16	Full-time—30 hrs Part-time—12 hrs
Massachusetts	NEA	Librarian				MS
Michigan	NCA	Teacher	Yes	20	20	Major or minor
Minnesota	NCA	Teacher	Yes	18	18	Major for more than half time
Mississippi	SA	Librarian	Yes	24	24	MS (30 hrs)
Missouri	NCA	Teacher	Yes	18	18	15 to 24 hrs
Montana	NWA	None				
Nebraska	NCA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	15 hrs
Nevada	NWA	Librarian	Yes			24 hrs
New Hampshire	NEA	Librarian	Yes	21	21	Full-time—24 hrs Part-time—6 hrs
New Jersey	MSA	Librarian	Yes			MS
New Mexico	NCA	None				
New York	MSA	Teacher	Yes	18	18	36 hrs
North Carolina	SA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	18 hrs
North Dakota	NCA	Librarian	Yes	16	16	200 pupils—10 hrs Less—6 hrs
Ohio	NCA	Teacher	Yes	17	19	15 to 30 hrs
Oklahoma	NCA	Teacher	Yes	21	21	Full-time—24 hrs Part-time—16 hrs
Oregon	NWA	None				
Pennsylvania	MSA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	30 hrs
Rhode Island	NEA	None				

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TABLE 1 (continued)

State	Reg. Assn.†	Kind of Certificate	Bach- elor's Degree	Hours in Education Elem.	Hours in Education Sec.	Requirements in Library Science
South Carolina	SA	Librarian	Yes	21	18	Full-time—24-30 hrs Part-time—12-18 hrs
South Dakota	NCA	Teacher	Yes	15	15	Major—24 hrs
Tennessee	SA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	Full-time—30 hrs Part-time—12 hrs
Texas	SA	Teacher	Yes	24	24	Full-time—Major or 1 yr in LS Part-time—12 hrs
Utah	NWA	Librarian	Yes	30	20	6 hrs
Vermont	NEA	None				
Virginia	SA	Librarian				Full-time—30 hrs Small schools— 18 hrs
Washington	NWA	Teacher	Yes	16	16	5 to 30 hrs, ac- cording to size of school
West Virginia	NCA	Teacher	Yes	20	20	24 hrs
Wisconsin	NCA	Librarian	Yes	18	18	15 to 30 hrs
Wyoming	NCA	Teacher	Yes	16	16	15 hrs

* Source: American Library Association. Board of Education for Librarianship: Part II—State Certification Requirements for School Librarians and Teacher-Li- brarians, Rev. Oct. 1945, *in Certification of Librarians; A Geographical Sum- mary.* Chicago, The Board, 1945; U. S. Office of Education: *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel.* (Circular No. 290) Washington, D.C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1951; Personal correspondence to the author of this article.

† MSA—Middle States Association. NCA—North Central Association. NEA—New England Association. NWA—Northwest Association. SA—Southern Association.

TABLE 2

Recommendations of Regional and National Associations •

Association	Recommendations
Middle States Association	Well educated, properly qualified, efficient
New England Association	None stated—not an accrediting agency
North Central Association	15 hrs. of Education
	500 or more pupils—24 hrs. of Library Science
	200-499 pupils—15 hrs. of Library Science
	Less than 200 pupils—6 hrs. of Library Science
Northwest Association	Part-time, teacher-librarian with technical training for less than 1,000 pupils
Southern Association	Person in charge of the library shall possess the experience and training specified by the state certification or accrediting agency
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education	MS in Education and 24 hrs. in Library Science
American Association of Junior Colleges	Accepts and endorses the requirements of regional associations, state departments of education, or state universities
American Library Association	Same requirements in Education as required of teachers
	30-36 hrs. in Library Science—Full-time
	12-18 hrs. in Library Science—Part-time

• Source: American Library Association. Board of Education for Librarianship: Part II—State Certification Requirements for School Librarians and Teacher-Librarians, Rev. Oct. 1945, in *Certification of Librarians; a Geographical Summary.* Chicago, The Board, 1945; U. S. Office of Education: *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel.* (Circular No. 290) Washington, D.C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1951; North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools: Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools. *North Central Association Quarterly,* 27:145-158, July 1952; Personal correspondence to the author of this article.

At the present time, there is no adequate rule of thumb by which to measure the adequacy of a book collection. As indicated earlier, standards have tended to use quantitative criteria, with such statements as "five books per pupil," "a minimum of 400 books," "four good newspapers," and "twenty-four books for English class." Another instrument for measurement is a table of percentages which indicates a balanced distribution of the Dewey Decimal classification in the total book collection. Most standards now, however, contain statements to the effect that the collection should be of a number and kind most adequate to meet instructional as well as individual needs. Such a specification is logical, of course, but difficult to apply, even with a qualifying phrase such as "appropriately selected" or "adequate." In this connection, report forms from state departments of education or accrediting agencies are somewhat misleading when they ask for the number of titles in a collection. Such a request commonly is interpreted as meaning the number of different titles, supplemented by the number of duplicate copies. In analyzing the book collection, a more valid criterion is that of the appropriateness of the holdings as checked against those listed in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries,* the *Children's Catalog,* or the *Basic Book Collection* series.

Standards for financial support vary from state to state, although the first standards set the figure at $1.00 per pupil. In actual practice, however, few schools have achieved that amount, and some state requirements run from $0.50 to $1.50. Confusion often results from the broad interpretation given to the statement "for the purchase of library materials." In actual practice, a clearer statement is "for the purchase of books alone, with additional provision made for magazines, supplies, equipment, encyclopedias, sets of readers, audio-visual materials, etc." Another possibility is to relate the library budget to other school expenditures on a percentage basis, on the theory that the library budget should keep pace with an expanding or contracting educational program.

Statements in standards which relate to the organization of the collection sometimes are found to be vague and misleading. "Dewey classification," "shelf list," "accession record," "inventory," "catalog," "loan system," "statistics," are usual items to be checked. Because the time devoted to records and processes may not reflect their relative importance, there is a tendency today to rely on a more general statement, such as "appropriate records should be kept."

As has been implied, many difficulties are encountered in the en-

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forcement and application of standards for school libraries. In the first place, the library in the school is a relatively new feature of the educational system, due to scant understanding of its value on the part of school officials. It is encouraging, however, to note that the library is considered more and more to be a necessary part of the school. A lack of adequate financial resources, as well as of physical facilities, has also presented difficulties. Increase in school population following World War II has made it necessary in many elementary schools to utilize every available room for classrooms. There has also been a decided scarcity of persons professionally prepared to be school librarians, although this condition is being changed somewhat with the elevation of the librarian to the status of teacher. As a result of such difficulties some schools are not accredited, while in other instances the accrediting agencies overlook the fact that standards are being disregarded. A more serious result, in terms of the total picture, is that some schools meet the minimum requirements only, while others comply with all criteria including some which may not apply.

On the whole, however, school library standards have contributed immeasurably to general improvement, and the following tangible results can be enumerated: (1) More materials have been provided for teachers, with enriched teaching and improved learning situations. (2) Teacher training institutions have offered courses for teachers dealing with the use of the library as a teaching instrument. In February 1952 standards for library science programs were adopted by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. These will be used by its Committee on Studies and Standards for use in visiting institutions. (3) State departments of education have employed school library specialists. (4) Library standards of state departments have been included in their annual report blanks sent to schools. (5) Articles concerning school libraries have been published in the professional literature of education as well as in that of librarianship. (6) Professional educational meetings have devoted part of their program to the school library, notably those of administrators, guidance counselors and teachers of English. (7) Secondary school library standards have influenced the growth of elementary school libraries. In fact, more and more are standards being written for school libraries as a whole, not just those in high schools.

The history, purposes, kinds, and results of school library standards, as well as the difficulties encountered in applying them, have been discussed. What, then, are the trends? What will the future picture be?

First of all, regional and state standards are being formulated and revised from time to time. This continuing process indicates that standards are established to meet school needs and are not arbitrarily written and handed to the schools. Second, there is a decided, and encouraging, tendency toward a combination of quantitative and qualitative expressions in standards. Another trend is the consideration of library standards in relation to those of the entire school. This integration emphasizes the fact that the library can never be an isolated part of the school. For example, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, in December 1951, adopted new standards for library service. They are, however, not stated as a separate section, but are presented as an integral part of the complete standards.

Closely related to the problem of standards, and in fact a part of it, is a consideration of the principles of evaluation, since standards in themselves are used as tools of evaluation. The following general statements concerning evaluation are worth consideration as they apply to the application of school library standards: (1) All people affected by the results should be involved in the planning and the evaluation. (2) Evaluation should be done in the light of the goals accepted by the group involved, recognizing both growth and achievement. (3) Evaluation should be continuous. (4) Evaluation should be objective insofar as possible, making subjective judgments increasingly objective through the use of specific evidence.

In actual practice, evaluation of a school library program may take the form of involuntary reaction, a count of specifics, or an estimation of the degree to which intangibles have been attained. In the preceding discussion it is evident that the library program in any given school has meaning only in terms of its integration with the general educational program. It may be, then, that the only dependable means of evaluation is the broad one for use in judging the whole program, with implications for library service developing as they will.

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Training for School Librarianship

FLORRINELL F. MORTON

THE DEVELOPMENT of school libraries in the
United States has been largely a concern of the twentieth century,
and the need for librarians specially prepared to render service in the
schools was slow to be recognized. When Katharine L. Sharp, then
the Director of the Department of Library Science at Armour Insti-
tute, summarized the laws pertaining to school libraries which were
in effect in 1895, she found some legal provision for their establishment
and financial support, and for the book collection in twenty-two states,
but none anywhere for staff. So for granted did she take the lack of
trained librarians in the schools that she offered suggestions for pro-
moting the use of the library "to the librarian . . . who is supposed to
be a teacher with no knowledge of library work." [1] Twenty years later,
in her study of school libraries, Mary E. Hall [2] reported the appoint-
ment of but fifty trained librarians to schools from 1905 to 1915, and
in that same year C. C. Certain [3] described the deplorable state of
southern school libraries and attributed the dissipation of their re-
sources to the failure of school administrators to place them under the
supervision of trained librarians.

Although the establishment of school libraries was slow through-
out the first two decades of the century, the quality of the work of the
pioneer school librarians, the interest and support of many public
librarians, and the vigorous attack on the problem by teachers and
school administrators gained recognition for school libraries and for
school librarianship and prepared the way for the rapid development
that was to follow. Not until standards for school libraries and certifica-
tion for school librarians were developed was the pressure for special
preparation for school librarianship sufficiently strong to influence,
to any appreciable extent, the curricula of library schools, and to inter-
est the normal schools and teachers colleges in assuming responsibility
for the preparation of library personnel as well as teachers. The docu-

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ment entitled, *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes*,[4] which was produced first as a report of the Committee on High School Libraries of the North Central Association in 1918, and later sponsored by the National Education Association and the American Library Association, marked a turning point in the development of school libraries and had tremendous effect upon education for school librarianship.

The implications of the Certain Standards [4] for library education were recognized immediately. Officers of the School Library Section of the American Library Association, foreseeing a need for school librarians that the library schools could not meet, called a meeting in New York on May 22, 1920, to consider the question of preparing them. A committee was set up to investigate the problem and to consider such questions as: "Does school library work require specialized training? If so, what differences should be made from the usual library school training courses? To what extent do school men feel the librarian needs courses in education or teaching?" [5]

Following the lead of the North Central Association and the National Education Association, and spreading the pressure throughout the country, other regional associations and state departments set more or less similar standards, thus creating a market for school librarians to which neither the accredited library schools nor the programs in teacher-education institutions were adequate. The literature of the period makes frequent reference to the discrepancy between the supply and demand in the school library field. Mary E. Robbins,[6] instructor in library science at Rhode Island State Normal School, recognizing that the schools must turn to the teacher-training institutions for a large part of their librarians, sent out a questionnaire to 125 normal schools and teachers colleges. Returns from these disclosed that in 1919 only a few gave courses designed to prepare school librarians. But by the early thirties many teacher-training institutions had entered the field, and the number has continued to grow until in 1952 more than 400 colleges and universities in the United States offer courses designed to fit school librarians for their prospective duties.

Throughout the twenties and into the thirties librarians resisted the trend toward the preparation of school librarians in the teacher-training institutions. In its second annual report the Board of Education for Librarianship recommended "That full-time school librarians should receive their library preparation in accredited library schools only; that part-time school librarians may receive their library prepa-

ration by carrying an accredited curriculum in school library work in a normal school, college, or university. . . ."⁷ However, the sheer number required to meet the need in elementary and high school libraries defeated the effort to confine the educating of school librarians to the accredited library schools, and to reserve to the teacher-training institutions the fitting of teachers trained in the use of the library and administrators conscious of its functions and value. It was inevitable that library courses in teacher-training institutions would increase in number and eventually come to supply the majority of school librarians. A number of factors combined to cause this development, some of which were:

1. The prevailing pattern of library education in the professional library schools throughout the twenties, which provided a general curriculum usually in the first post-graduate year and withheld specialization until the second post-graduate year, extended the education of school librarians beyond that of classroom teachers.

2. The concentration of library schools in a few sections of the country left great areas unserved by professional library schools.

3. The reluctance of library schools to offer summer courses and to provide opportunity for specialization in school librarianship forced schools to seek elsewhere for school library personnel.

4. The insistence of school administrators on instructional as well as library qualifications set a requirement which many library school students could not meet, and with which library schools were not entirely in sympathy.

5. The tendency of the school administrator to turn for his librarians to those institutions from which he was accustomed to secure his teachers encouraged the offering of library education in teacher-education institutions.

6. The large number of small schools which could not appoint, or were not required by the standards under which they operated to appoint, full-time librarians created a demand for "teacher-librarians" who were trained for service as teachers and as librarians, a type of training that the library schools of that period were not set up to offer as part of their regular programs.

In retrospect it might seem strange that library schools should have been so reluctant to provide special preparation for a field which gave promise of so steady and large a market for their product. However, instruction looking toward service to all special groups and in various

specific types of libraries was slow to enter the curricula of library schools. Williamson [8] stressed the lack of such training and emphasized the need for it in his report to the Carnegie Corporation, which he based on a study of the fifteen accredited schools made during the 1920–21 academic year. Thirty-three years after the opening of the first school, he observed that "While library service has been growing more and more highly specialized, . . . the training afforded by the library schools has for the most part remained general. It is approximately accurate to say that the aim of the library schools at present is to fit every student to take up any branch of library work which may offer an opening." [9] He was emphatic in his statement that "Probably the most important group for which specialized training should be provided at once are the school librarians, and particularly the high school librarians." [10]

In spite of all that has been said it perhaps is not surprising that school libraries were neglected in the early development of library education. Library schools were following the lead of libraries rather than assuming leadership in library development. They had their origins in apprenticeship and in the in-service training classes offered by libraries for the preparation of their own staffs. The subject content and methods of these programs were reflected in the library schools throughout the pre-Williamson period of library education. So-called general programs were actually concerned with public and university libraries. Alice S. Tyler,[11] in reviewing the first forty years of library education, stated that "Education for librarianship in America has naturally and primarily been evolved to meet the requirements of our most distinctive library achievement—the American public library." Even today this is to some extent true. That the subject of school libraries was introduced into the curriculum as early as it was, was due no doubt to the fact that public libraries were promoting school libraries, and many were supplying library service to schools. In various institutions, at that time, courses in library work with children were used for the preparation of the public librarian who was to work in the schools as well as for the training of the children's librarian. In 1917 the Carnegie Library School, Pittsburgh, differentiated between the duties and responsibilities of school and children's librarians to the extent of including a separate course in school library work, but this example was followed only slowly.

Actually little was done by the schools to alleviate the critical situation in the school library field until the thirties. The Board of Educa-

tion for Librarianship showed great concern for the problem throughout its first fifteen years. Its very first report [12] directed the attention of library schools to the need for school librarians, estimating that seven thousand would be wanted annually, a number almost double the total number of graduates of accredited library schools then engaged in library work.

In its second report,[7] the Board recognized that "Specialization must be given its opportunity. Courses for school, children's, and hospital librarians and other specialists in library work must be easily accessible to those desiring them." It recommended further development of summer courses in more regions of the country, and the offering of these courses for degree credit. Encouragement of a geographic spread of opportunities for library education and the formulation of minimum standards for summer courses [13] and minimum standards for a curriculum in school library work,[14] were the Board's contributions during the twenties in the solution of the problem.

While there was a steady increase throughout the twenties in number of school library electives and in summer opportunities for study, by 1927 only three of the regular accredited library schools offered summer session programs, and in 1929 the Board could report that only five had full curricula in school library work during the regular term, although others offered one course in the subject.[15] It is small wonder then that teacher-education institutions sought to fill the gap, particularly with summer courses.

Alice Lohrer [16] in her study of programs for the preparation of teacher-librarians designates the years 1919–1929 and 1930–1936 as periods of "Rapid Growth—Rise of Standards" and " 'Mushroom' Growth —Depression—Oversupply." Certainly these designations are descriptive not alone of teacher-librarian programs but of school library education in general. Fourteen schools came into existence during the twenties and eleven during the thirties. These had no antecedence in public libraries; several were in institutions existing primarily to train teachers, a number were placed at the undergraduate level, one was established in accordance with the standards of the Board of Education for Librarianship for a sixteen semester hour curriculum in school library work, and several were accredited by that same body for the training of school librarians only. The very nature of the organization of most of these schools and their location were such as to make them responsive to school library needs, the best training for which, as Munn [17] pointed out, was still subject to dispute. Programs for the

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preparation of teacher-librarians were also increasing in the teacher-training institutions, with the sympathetic encouragement of the library profession and the Board of Education for Librarianship. It might have seemed that the way was open to the solution of the problems created by the enormous demand for school librarians and by the need for large numbers of part-time librarians. Then came the depression. The unemployment of library school graduates threw out of balance the supply and demand of school librarians and brought about competition between the partially trained librarian and the library school graduate, resulting in antagonism toward the teacher-librarian programs.

At this juncture we find the Board undertaking to discourage the extension of teacher-librarian courses and expressing concern over their "undue increase . . . and their frequently undesirable effect on the employment of librarians with more complete professional training." [18] In its report for 1935 the Board [19] named as "the most serious immediate problem" in library education, "the *training agencies other than library schools*," reported the completion of its new "Minimum Requirements for Teacher-Librarian Training Agencies" [20] and their adoption by the Council in 1934, and announced a Carnegie grant for a survey, which made the years 1935–1939 productive for the work of the Board in the field of school library education. A survey of representative training institutions [21] which offered library education programs, followed by surveys of library personnel and training agencies in several states, did much to clarify needs and strengthen programs.

Other accomplishments in the field were the publication of the report of the Joint Committee of the American Library Association and the American Association of Teachers Colleges, *How Shall We Educate Teachers and Librarians for Service in the Schools?* [22] and Fargo's study, *Preparation for School Library Work*.[23] These efforts in the thirties resulted in a change from the acceptance or rejection of programs in preparation for school librarianship based upon expediencies, to the development of programs and standards resting on the identification of objectives, the analysis of functions and duties, and a study of the relationships between education for school librarianship and the whole fields of library education and teacher education. This opened a way toward the development of a system of education for librarianship into which programs in preparation for the special fields could fit. Although progress was slowed up by the war, as the shortages of personnel became increasingly acute and gave indication of continu-

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ing beyond the war's duration, library education became the subject of major concern to the entire profession. In the general studies of library education made during the late forties,[24, 25] little attention was given to education for school librarianship. Even *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*,[26] produced by a committee of the American Library Association in 1944, made no startling recommendation for changes in the educational programs for the personnel designed to meet the high standards of service it set. It remained for the middle of the century to propose any innovations in the patterns of education for school librarianship.

What of the present situation, and what can be expected of the future? In the fifty-two years since the appointment of the first trained school librarian, have the problems been identified, and is progress being made toward their solution?

Certainly school librarians are a very vocal group within the body of librarianship, and they are making their needs known. Furthermore, they have been giving much thought and study to the problems of education for their work. The outstanding effort to arrive at a definitive statement of educational needs for any area of librarianship is that made by the Education Committee of the A.L.A. Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, working under the chairmanship of Frances Henne. Growing out of the efforts of that committee and forming a part of its project was the master's dissertation entitled *The Education of School Librarians*, submitted by Ruth Ersted[27] to the faculty of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in 1951. Like others before her, Ersted based her proposed curriculum on a job analysis; but to avoid mere perpetuation of the status quo she asked her respondents to state the objectives of their schools and libraries and to evaluate their general and professional education and the success of their performance in the light of these objectives. The hypotheses which she set out to prove or disprove have much meaning for library education and must be taken into consideration by all who would plan library education for school personnel, whether in professional library schools or in the teacher education institutions. The hypotheses are:

1. That all school librarians need to have a knowledge of the purposes and functions of both the elementary and secondary school library.
2. That school librarians need training in the fields of educational objectives and methods, educational and social psychology, curriculum

development, reading and other related content in the area of education.

3. That the existing dichotomy of training for teacher-librarians (part-time librarians) and for professional school librarians (full-time librarians) should be discontinued.

4. That professional education for school librarians should begin in the undergraduate college or university program, (similar to the subject specialization in the preparation of teachers).[28]

Ersted found evidence in support of the first two hypotheses, but unfortunately her sample contained too few teacher-librarians to give conclusive support of the third, and evidence was not gathered which would test the validity of the fourth. The first two hypotheses represent no ideas that are highly controversial. While the literature of the subject shows that little attention has been given to the subject of preparation for elementary school librarianship, many school library curricula are based upon the assumption that the school librarian should be acquainted with both elementary and secondary school purposes and functions, and certainly with materials for both levels. The curriculum worked out by the Third Southern Library Planning Conference on Training for School Librarianship [29] in 1946 stresses this concept.

The second hypothesis has general acceptance in theory if not in practice, and recognition of the need for educational as well as library study can be noted in the literature throughout the past twenty-five or more years. Mary E. Robbins [6] in 1919 spoke of the need to supply "not any trained librarian, but a trained librarian fitted to do school library work." Della Northey,[30] when school library supervisor of the Indiana Public Library Commission, emphasized the need thus in 1923: "Just as the librarian of the public library must understand and appreciate the needs of the club woman and the business man, so must the librarian in charge of our high school library have a sympathetic knowledge of school problems and activities. Above all this librarian must be a teacher. . . . One thing is certain, if college or normal school education is necessary for the teacher, then educational background plus technical training is necessary for the high school librarian." Various of the annual reports of the Board of Education for Librarianship point out this need for a dual professional preparation. The fourth annual report [31] puts that body on record in 1928 as recognizing the need for "an adequate supply of workers, who, in addition to their knowledge of technique, are versed in children's

literature and child psychology, understand the objectives of the school and are in full sympathy with them."

The third and fourth hypotheses are less generally accepted as yet, and their acceptance, when it comes, will have a more disturbing effect on library education and in particular upon the professional library schools. That the part-time librarian needs basically the same education as does the full-time librarian seems too obvious to need discussion. As Ersted points out, the objectives of the school library are the same, whether it is administered by one who devotes her full time to that responsibility or not. The very fact that the part-time librarian has less time to give to library service increases the pressures on her and calls for greater skill and ability if adequate service is to be rendered. The two parallel programs of education for service to children and young people in schools, which have functioned independently of each other for so long, cannot be justified educationally and can only be explained on the basis of expediency.

Created by economic pressures and stabilized and perpetuated by state and regional standards, this situation has outlived its usefulness. So long, however, as standards and certification regulations require a full year of preparation for service in the larger schools, that long will shorter courses for the part-time librarian exist to provide needed personnel for the small schools. If the objectives are the same for both small and large school libraries, if the same skills and understandings are required of the full and part-time librarian, and if a background of general education and of teacher education is necessary to the preparation of both, then a realistic approach to the preparatory needs of school librarians demands that the minimum professional education of all school librarians be the same. Since this cannot be accomplished by placing that minimum at a year of graduate study, some other solution must be found.

Ersted proposes as a solution a basic program limited to fifteen semester hours of education for school librarians, "planned to equip graduates of the four year college program to perform satisfactorily the services of a beginning school librarian." [32] She conceives it not as a terminal program but as one on which, in her estimate, a fifth year of study can be based.

This limitation on credit hours and undergraduate placement of beginning programs of professional library education for all school librarians, if accepted by the profession, will have serious consequences for both the professional library schools and the teacher-edu-

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cation institutions which prepare for school librarianship. Large numbers of teacher-education institutions offer programs of less than fifteen hours. These will need to increase their curricula or withdraw from the field. Others have programs of approximately a year in length and will find it necessary to curtail their offerings. Since these programs are usually geared to state and regional certification requirements, revision of such standards will be required. Institutional complications arising with curricula that constitute less than an academic major, and a lessening of prestige for such limited programs, are feared by some who administer undergraduate programs.

In the professional library school still different but equally serious problems must be solved if education for school librarians is to follow the proposed pattern. Several recent developments in library education have created a situation, however, which may be favorable to this new concept of school library training. All accredited library schools, with the exception of five, are now at the graduate level, as are a number of the new schools which have not yet been evaluated for accreditation. With the adoption of the new "Standards for Accreditation" [33] by the American Library Association on July 13, 1951, only five-year programs become eligible for accreditation or re-accreditation. The library schools which were accredited as Type III schools, by changing to graduate status, have virtually eliminated one complication which could have been serious. More than half of the schools now rest their graduate programs upon beginning programs at the undergraduate level. The new standards for accreditation provide for the acceptance of undergraduate library education insofar as it contributes to the objectives of the five-year programs. Can library schools which base their graduate programs on an undergraduate curriculum accept a program designed to prepare specifically for one type of service as meeting their undergraduate curriculum requirement, or must they insist upon general introductory courses? Will library schools whose entire programs are post-graduate consider that an undergraduate professional curriculum, even though limited to as little as fifteen hours, so cuts into general education that it will penalize the student who attempts to enter with such preparation? Will such programs be judged as contributing to the objectives of the five-year scheme? Will the schools find it possible to build graduate specialization for school libraries on these programs, or will they continue to parallel them more or less at the graduate level, as they have in the past? And finally, will library schools which place their entire offer-

ings at the graduate level retire from the school library field entirely, revise their curricula to provide this undergraduate basic training for school librarianship, or limit their offerings in the school library field to advanced courses? These are questions to which library schools must find the answers soon. While library educators and school librarians may disagree over the exact length of the programs and the actual course content, there seems to be rather general agreement on the basic assumptions. Already some states have revised their certification laws to provide a single training requirement, rather than a series of requirements based upon size of schools in terms of enrollment. Library schools which stipulate previous library education for admission to their graduate programs already have begun to grapple with the problem of accepting school library curricula to meet this requirement. Admitting the fact that in the past, as Leigh [34] puts it, "The most difficult library specialty to fit in as a part of a single year's general program is training for library work with children and in schools," perhaps now, with the five-year plan of library education, this difficulty will be eased.

The most serious handicaps under which library schools have operated in relation to the undergraduate curricula in teacher-education institutions have been the great variety in length, content, and quality of the various courses and the lack of accreditation or evaluation of the programs. The standards of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for library training programs and cooperatively evolved course outlines have been instrumental in securing some degree of uniformity in the states comprising that regional organization. Several states—Texas, Louisiana, Illinois, and Missouri, to name some—are working toward state-wide uniformity, but there has been nothing to bring about uniformity at the national level since the adoption by A.L.A. Council of the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Librarian Training Agencies in 1934, now long since inoperative. The Board of Education for Librarianship has never had the staff nor funds to make possible the accreditation of programs of less than library school proportions, and the Minimum Requirements were never used except for advisory purposes.

Now once more the Board has undertaken to formulate standards for undergraduate curricula of library science for teacher-education institutions,[35] and it has done so at this time because it appears that accreditation of such programs may at last be feasible in cooperation with the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education.

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These standards were prepared by a special subcommittee appointed by the Board on which the American Association of School Librarians, the Association of College and Reference Libraries, and the State School Library Supervisors had representation. The Board of Education for Librarianship approved the standards at its midwinter meeting in 1952, and the A.A.C.T.E. accepted them in April for experimental use in its inter-visitation program.

Although worked out independently of the Ersted study, the standards in question have been drawn up with knowledge of that study. The final statement was prepared after criticisms and suggestions were secured from individual school librarians, school library supervisors, and faculties of both library schools and school library programs in teacher-education institutions, and after careful consideration of the tentative draft at the Workshop on the Professional Training of School Librarians held at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago on August 16-24, 1951. The points of agreement with the Ersted recommendations are most encouraging. Insofar as they parallel one another, the basic assumptions upon which the standards rest agree with those which Ersted sought to prove, and with the recommendations made in her study. They recognize the necessity for educational, as well as library, training for the school librarian. They consider as appropriate the undergraduate placement of basic education for school librarianship and provide both an upper and a lower limitation on such programs. They accept the concept of education for school librarianship which would require the same basic preparation for the part-time as for the full-time librarian, and they insist upon the articulation between undergraduate programs in library science and in the graduate library schools in the same area. Although no specific statement is made to that effect, the standard governing the curriculum implies that the education of a school librarian should prepare for service in both the elementary and secondary school. The one hypothesis of Ersted on which the standards are silent is that on which she gathered no evidence. It is that the professional education of the school librarian should begin in the undergraduate college or university program. Since the standards were designed for undergraduate programs in teacher-education institutions, such a stipulation, actually directed at the graduate library schools, would have been inappropriate. It might well be that the Board would not favor so rigid a restriction on library schools; and certainly the library schools might well expect more freedom of action in placing the basic

elements in their programs for school library work as well as for other areas of librarianship.

The only other difference of any significance between the Ersted recommendations and the standards represents a point of view which needs considerable thought. Traditionally, the desirable academic preparation for all librarians has been conceived as including general education and subject specialization, and the standards rest upon this. Ersted's findings revealed a need for so wide a spread of subject knowledge on the part of school librarians as to cause her to conclude that several subject minors rather than one subject major would be preferable in their academic preparation, although she recognizes that this might be impossible in the light of institutional requirements.

With the strong backing of the American Association of School Librarians which can be expected for the Ersted study, with the acceptance of the corresponding standards developed by the Board of Education for Librarianship, and with the new patterns of library education which would appear to make such a program of education for school librarianship possible of articulation with graduate professional library education, the future looks hopeful. Not all library educators are convinced that undergraduate library education is desirable. Many who accept the concept of graduate library education based upon an undergraduate program of professional education oppose any specialization at the beginning level. Some would go so far as to provide no specialization even at the Master's level, and would depend entirely upon the subject specialization that the student brings to his general library education as preparing him for service in special types of libraries.

A recent study [86] of the place of elective courses in the various types of library work made at Columbia University, however, although not conclusive, supports the assumption that school librarians do need specialization in school library objectives and functions. And since it reports findings in evidence that preparation for school library service makes for successful performance in other types of libraries, it may even strengthen the belief that graduate programs of library education can be based upon undergraduate programs set up particularly to prepare the beginning librarian for service to children and young people in the elementary and secondary schools. Research that would prove or disprove such a position is the most serious need at this point in the development of library education. We must have the resulting knowledge to meet the question, "Shall graduate education for school

librarianship be tied to library or to teacher education?" The answer
to that query must come before further directions can be charted.

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Evaluating School Library Services

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ATTEMPTS TO improve the school library through an appraisal of its present strengths and weaknesses are not new, but emphasis upon the effectiveness of its educational service rather than upon the adequacy of its facilities is of relatively recent origin. Changes in the instruments and procedures for evaluation of the school library have corresponded closely with changes in educational measurement and evaluation. Quantitative standards or norms for the secondary school library were adopted by regional accrediting associations and state education departments as a part of a larger schedule of regulations for the entire school program. Because these standards were stated in numerical terms they were easy to enforce and were useful in stimulating a school to supply the necessary framework around which an effective school and library program could be organized. Growing dissatisfaction with the rigidity and deadening effects of quantitative standards resulted in a comprehensive investigation of the problems of accrediting by representatives of the six regional educational associations, which was known as the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. The *Evaluative Criteria*,[1] published as a result of the work of this group, sought to judge the worth of a school in terms of the achievement of its objectives. The detailed specifications of the quantitative standards were replaced by descriptive statements of acceptable educational practice, and schools were weighed in terms of these statements. Standards of regional associations and state agencies were influenced by the *Evaluative Criteria*, and many of the specific requirements for the library were replaced by general qualitative statements.

These changes in standards resulted, in part, from the growing movement in education to broaden the scope of evaluation and measurement of student achievement. Educators had been stressing for

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a period of years that instruction should equip students with much more than information and skills, that learning should be functional, that education should adjust the student to life, and that it should modify his behavior in desirable directions. Curriculum planners realized that evaluation is a powerful influence upon curriculum content and learning. Students, and teachers likewise, are greatly influenced by the type of appraisal to be made. Unless evaluation procedures and techniques were broadened to provide for gathering evidence of desirable changes in student behavior in respect to such characteristics as thinking processes, social attitudes, and work habits, these broader objectives would be largely ignored in the teaching program.[2] The evaluation concept of considering the child in a broad sense has also been stimulated by the recent tendency of educators and psychologists to consider the child as a whole rather than as an individual whose behavior and abilities can be classified in different compartments.[3]

Thus, there has come acceptance of the idea that educational objectives of the school should be directed toward desired changes in the behavior of students, and that evaluation should provide measurement of the degree of effectiveness with which an educational institution, or a component part of it, achieves such objectives. The application of this to libraries has been affected primarily by the development of techniques and devices which can be used to gather the evidence necessary for appraisal. Consequently, the following review of recent trends in the evaluation of school libraries considers in chronological order the types of instruments and means which have been specifically designed for such appraisal, their strengths and weaknesses, and the research which is still needed.

The most common method of evaluating school library service has been that of measuring the library against the various standards of the regional accrediting associations, state educational agencies, national associations, and special groups. Thus there is a close relationship between the paper on standards in this volume and the present discussion. A considerable body of literature now exists about school library standards, and summaries of their historical development and the content of recent examples can be found in articles and theses by Spain,[4] Hefley,[5] Srygley,[6] and Spaulding.[7]

Quantitative standards expressing in numerical terms and specific regulations the requirements for school library budget, quarters, staff, and materials were the first type to be adopted by regional accrediting associations and later by state educational agencies. Although

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qualitative standards are supplementing and in some instances replacing quantitative measurement, most statements of regional and state agencies still carry some specific quantitative requirements relative to budget, materials, and staff. The specificity of quantitative standards has been both their major strength and weakness. Frequently they have been easy to apply and enforce, and have encouraged the provision of a minimal structure upon which a school library program could be built. However, the attempt to apply a universal measuring stick or a single set of standards uniformly to schools that differ in purpose, size, and organization has resulted in some unfair appraisals. Also, because they have been frequently interpreted as maximum rather than minimum requirements, they have tended to restrict library growth.[4] Other major criticisms of the standards have concerned their foundation upon assumptions which have not been proved objectively, and the lack of any realistic appraisal of their validity; their tendency to represent minimal rather than optimum requirements; their omission of specifications for audio-visual materials;[5] and their unrealistic distinction among the educational requirements of librarians according to the school enrollments to be dealt with, e.g., the six semester hours of preparation in librarianship required in a small school and the fifteen to twenty-four semester hours stipulated in the case of a large school.[5]

Qualitative standards are being used to supplement and in some instances to replace entirely the quantitative requirements in many of the accreditation schedules of regional and state agencies. They employ functional terms rather than exact quantities or amounts to express the requirements for school library service, and appraisal is based upon the adequacy of the library in meeting the particular needs of an individual school. The lack of exactness of the qualitative standards makes them difficult to enforce and to follow, but permits, at the same time, their application to all types of libraries. If appraisal of library services and materials through qualitative standards is to be accurate, it must be handled by individuals familiar with the characteristics of effective library service and equipment. The lack of suggestions for methods of applying qualitative standards or for the type of evidence needed to rate the library against them makes their interpretation hard for even the skilled librarian.

The qualitative trend in standards reached its apex in the evaluative criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards,[4] already mentioned. The purpose of the study was to develop a technique

for measuring the program of the school as a whole according to quality rather than in the quantitative terms that had been used previously as a basis for accreditation. The instrument resulting from the study was chiefly diagnostic with reference to the strengths and weaknesses of the school. The library was considered as a part of the total school program, and various areas of library service were appraised in different parts of the evaluation schedule. Although greater attention was directed toward the educational services of the library, the aspects covered were, in general, those of the earlier quantitative standards, i.e., size and range of collection, size and training of staff, size and location of quarters, and book selection methods. The minute detail and exact specifications of the old standards were replaced by checklists, consisting of a series of descriptive statements of provisions, conditions, or characteristics of acceptable library service found in good secondary schools; and evaluations were made on the basis of these statements. Each section was to be scored numerically and the results then translated into graphic form in a series of thermometers that showed the "educational temperature" of the library. To aid a school in comparing its program with practice in other comparable schools, thermometers were published showing the standings of two hundred experimental schools. By using these thermometers, any school could determine the status of its library in relation to norms established for other school libraries of the same type, size, or region. This system of visual presentation made possible comparison with previous scores and the gauging of growth from year to year.

The *Evaluative Criteria* was a marked improvement over earlier qualitative standards as an instrument of evaluation for the library primarily because the description of good library service in the checklists clarified by means of specific examples the functions and educational services of the library and the role of librarian, instructors, and pupils in the total school program. Although the desirability of gathering evidence upon which to base the evaluation was stressed, the type of records needed and appropriate techniques for securing data were left for the most part to the initiative of the individual school. Similarly, although emphasis was given to the importance of having school library service accord with the school's philosophy of education and meet the needs of the school population, no suggestions were made for precise methods of determining the library's success in these areas. The sections devoted to library materials were an improvement over similar sections in former standards, but the methods used to

determine the adequacy of the collection were questionable. Each periodical held was rated by a fixed quality score which represented the composite judgment of a large group of secondary school librarians. The score allowed no consideration of the particular needs of an individual school and thus gave no valid interpretation of the worth of the periodical collection. The value of the book collection was determined by noting the number of volumes, distribution, inclusion of titles in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries,* and an estimate of its adequacy in relation to need. Distribution was measured by a table of percentages which indicated relative representation of various parts of the book collection in the Dewey classification. Apparently, it was assumed that the percentages were a valid reflection of diverse student needs, but it would be interesting to know the basis on which the designers of the standards made their allocations. Reliable guides were lacking to help the evaluator decide the question of how adequately the requirements in any subject area were being met.

In 1950, following two and one half years of research, a revised edition of the *Evaluative Criteria*[9] was published. Its sections parallel many of the divisions of the earlier edition, and the most drastic revision occurs in the method of reporting results. The thermometers and norms are eliminated, and graphic summaries are provided in the form of horizontal bar charts. The library section is expanded and improved; descriptive statements are reworked to point up the mutual responsibility of the library staff and teachers in the library's educational program, particularly in relation to budgeting, selection and use of materials, teaching the use of books and the library, and curriculum planning; all aspects of the audio-visual program are given fuller treatment; and library quarters and equipment, formerly considered under the school plant, are included in the general library section. Methods for evaluation of the book and periodical collection are simplified; gone are the weighted numbers for periodicals and the attempt to determine the balance of the book collection by using a table of percentages for the Dewey classes. The collection is to be judged on its volume, recency, and number of titles included in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries.* Unfortunately, the rater is still forced to decide on the adequacy of each major Dewey class in relation to need, without any guides to show how such a conclusion might be reached. Extensive revision of the sections dealing with the school curriculum results in separate divisions for each subject area and the core program; a section on instructional materials included under each of these subject

areas provides another check on the adequacy of the library as the materials center of the school. The major usefulness of the new *Evaluative Criteria* lies in its listing of the basic services and facilities essential in a good high school library program and its emphasis upon appraisal on the basis of student needs. Its lack of suggestions as to the types of evidence needed to get a complete picture of current services and methods for determining the success of the library program in terms of student needs constitutes its chief limitations.

The American Association of School Librarians, a section of the American Library Association,[10] formulated a set of national standards in 1945, which was based upon the experience and judgment of authorities throughout the country. These standards are significant for several reasons. A dynamic service and educational program for students and teachers is outlined in qualitative statements; and quantitative standards for staff, housing, and budget are increased significantly in order to permit its development. Broad objectives have been included toward which all librarians should work if effective school library service is to become a reality on a state and national scale, e.g., state school library supervision, state and regional planning, and centralization of technical processes for all school libraries in a given region. In addition, provisions are included for the elementary as well as the secondary school library. Previously, elementary school standards had been established only by the state, since elementary schools are not included in the accreditation program of regional accrediting associations. Most of the requirements for the elementary school library in those states which have formulated definite standards are lower and simpler than those for the secondary school. The national standards make no distinction between the two levels of library service; the educational functions of both the elementary and secondary school library and the machinery necessary for their activation are regarded as identical.

As a device for evaluating the library of an individual school, the national standards are useful as a supplement to the state and regional standards and the *Evaluative Criteria*. The higher quantitative standards can be used to stimulate increased support for the library, while the qualitative requirements outline succinctly the purposes, types, and characteristics of library service necessary for a vital educational program. The standards have been criticized by Fannin[11] from the standpoint of their effect upon the development of elementary school library service because of (1) the marked increase in quantitative

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requirements, which may retard rather than accelerate the expansion of the elementary school library, and (2) the failure to recognize the need of the elementary school for extensive duplication of titles in the numerical requirements for book collections.

Standards, thus, are important instruments in library evaluation even though their application does not permit a thorough appraisal of the status of the library in question. Since effective library service is dependent upon adequate resources, sound organization, and a capable staff, devices for measuring these aspects of the library are essential. The quantitative standards of state and regional agencies and of the American Association of School Librarians provide a convenient measurement of the physical aspects of the library, but a realistic appraisal of the validity of these varying norms is needed before they can be accepted as reliable guides.

The need for more precise measures of the educational functionalism of the school library was recognized by Henne [8] in 1943 in a paper discussing the evaluation of school libraries. A four-point program was proposed for the total evaluation of any school library: (1) obtaining information concerning basic factors which describe the school and which affect the evaluation of the school library; (2) measuring the library in terms of existing standards relative to budget, staff, materials collection, equipment, and library use; (3) appraising the library's participation in the achievement of the school's objectives; and (4) keeping the essential records necessary for a valid evaluation. The statement was a landmark in school library evaluation because it not only recognized the need to judge the school library in terms of its contribution to the growth of students, but also made specific suggestions about the kinds of activities which might be evaluated and the type of evidence which might be collected to show the library's part in student development. The chief value of the proposed program was as a guide to the librarian interested in establishing for his own use procedures which would go beyond the application and interpretation of standards; it was not intended nor could it be employed as a universally appropriate instrument.

A Planning Guide for the High School Library Program, designed by Henne, Ersted, and Lohrer [12] as a tool for gathering and evaluating data essential for the construction of a library planning program, is based in large part upon the suggestions made earlier by Henne. The end-product of evaluation—planning a future program for improved school library service—is emphasized throughout the volume. Follow-

ing accepted practices in evaluation, the guide commences with the definition of objectives of the individual school and of the library, accompanied by a preliminary evaluation of the degree of success in achieving library objectives. The main body of the guide is made up of sections relating to background information; library activities and services for students and teachers; general use of the library (accessibility factors, attendance, circulation); staff; materials in the school library and classroom; budget; and quarters and equipment. Final chapters provide charts for making a reappraisal of the success with which objectives are being achieved, directions for constructing a five-year planning program, and a summary table.

Within each category in the central portion of the guide are a series of questions relating to the characteristic of the library being evaluated, and statements describing good school library practice. Standards of the regional accrediting associations and the national professional association of school librarians are included for those aspects of the library program for which standards exist. Evaluations of the relative importance to the school of the services or facilities described, and of their effectiveness or adequacy, are recorded by encircling letter and numerical symbols in the margin. When these symbols are transferred to the summary tables, the evaluator is able to determine the relative strengths and weaknesses of the library program and the aspects which should receive emphasis in planning. The guide does more than ask for the recording of an evaluation. The quantitative facts that must be gathered, and the qualitative aspects that must be determined concerning these facts for a total picture of the library program, are clearly described, and space is provided for recording this information. For example, school library service to meet student requests is evaluated on the basis of an analysis of such service. The librarian is asked to record for a week the number and types of requests answered, and for those not filled a statement of the reason why. Measures for determining the adequacy of the materials owned have been expanded and improved over those in the *Evaluative Criteria*. The book collection is appraised not only according to its balance, quality, currency, and size, but also to its holdings in subject areas related to the common educational needs of all youth, e.g., those which concern personality, home and family living, and world planning. The newspaper, periodical, pamphlet, and audio-visual holdings are analyzed with equal thoroughness.

A re-evaluation of the library's achievement of its objectives in

terms of the facts and judgments recorded in the guide is the final step in the appraisal procedure. A significant part of the reappraisal is the identification of the reasons for not achieving the objectives to the extent desired. The relationship of the objectives to the planning program is clearly delineated; the objectives provide the philosophy upon which the program rests, and the causes contributing to failure to attain them suggest aspects of the program which should be given precedence.

This planning guide is the most useful tool available for evaluation of the secondary school library at the present time. By indicating the types of evidence needed for a thorough appraisal, and providing through its system of evaluative symbols a technique for their evaluation, it takes care of omissions noted earlier in the qualitative standards. In asking for a definition of aims, the identification of methods to achieve them, and an evaluation of their attainment, it brings school and library objectives down to a working level for the first time. The convenient devices and clear directives for utilizing the information collected in the evaluation for planning an improved library program are probably the most commendable features of the volume. Its limitations are few and minor. Arbitrary descriptive statements about library techniques for organizing and administering the materials collection preclude consideration of alternative possibilities which may be equally feasible. The 1951 revision of the standards of the Southern Association [13] were published too late for inclusion.

That effective library service is dependent upon the informed and constructive participation of teachers, administrators, and students is an accepted principle of school librarianship. The lack of understanding of the value of school libraries on the part of school officials has also been noted as a major obstacle in the enforcement of library standards.[4] Early methods of evaluation through the application of qualitative and quantitative norms by outside authorities tended to perpetuate cloudy thinking about the role of the library in the school. The technique of self-appraisal preceding judgment by outside experts, required by the *Evaluative Criteria*, helped the librarian to think critically about the library program, but few teachers were involved in the process. Similar difficulties occur in all areas of the school program. Recognition of the need for informed faculty, student, and community participation in planning the educational program led the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program [14] to organize the Local Area Consensus Studies in 1949. The fundamental assumption

upon which these studies rest is that sound curriculum planning is based upon decisions by the entire faculty and representatives of the student body and community as to: (1) the purposes of each of the subject or service areas of the school; (2) which of the accepted aims are and are not currently being embodied in the program of the school; and (3) what can and should be done to achieve such of the accepted purposes in each subject or service area as are currently being neglected.

Instruments to guide the faculty, student, community groups in their deliberations were developed by juries composed of subject specialists and representatives from the state education department, universities, professional associations, and the secondary schools. Three inventories for nineteen subject and service areas were formulated. Each inventory consists of a series of statements of the principles which should govern and the chief ends which should be striven for in the subject or service area. Inventory A and Inventory B are to be used by all teachers in the high school and by a representative panel of pupils and patrons. In Inventory A, each respondent is asked to indicate anonymously, first, whether or not he believes his school should accept and strive to accomplish the principle or purpose and, second, to estimate the extent to which he thinks his school is currently accomplishing the principle or purpose. The data from Inventory A are to be tabulated and utilized as a basis for full faculty-patron-pupil discussions. The principal aim of the discussion, under the leadership of the local principal and representatives of the subject areas, will be to argue the pros and cons of each principle and purpose with a view to building the broadest possible basis of faculty-pupil-patron consensus in support of the program of the particular area under review. A realistic appraisal of the strengths and weaknesses of the current program of the school should also result. Inventory B is to be administered following the discussions. This repeats the listing of principles and purposes of Inventory A; in addition, each respondent is asked to indicate which, if any, of them he believes his school should attempt to implement better or achieve more fully. From the data in Inventory B, teachers in the subject area and the principal will decide which are to be made the objects of serious attempts at curriculum development. The final inventory, C, is designed to enable the local school to work out its own ways of achieving each of the desired improvements in the area under review. Inventories A

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and B have been given experimental trials in a sampling of schools, but the first real studies were planned to begin in the fall of 1952.

Materials for the study of the school library are being prepared by Lohrer with the guidance and appraisal of the library jury. Inventory A, *What Do You Think About Our School Library Program?* [15] and Inventory B, *In What Respects Should We Strengthen Our School Library Program?* [16] have been pretested and are now available in printed form. They consist of forty-one statements of principles and purposes, comprising not only a wide range of desirable library services but also of matters of administration, e.g., methods of organizing and selecting materials. Regional and national standards pertaining to budget, staff, and quarters are included to aid consideration of principles related to library facilities. The statements are notable for their clarity and freedom from professional jargon. A manual for discussion leaders has also been prepared to guide the debate about library purposes among the faculty-student-patron group after Inventory A has been administered. The manual is made up of a series of questions which point up possible results accruing from the acceptance or rejection of each principle. The construction of Inventory C is still in progress and represents the most difficult problem in the library series. Its end is to assist a working committee of the librarian and faculty in devising a program to improve library service in areas which the consensus study indicates should be strengthened. The inventory consists of a series of questions designed to suggest procedures that might be a possible part of the total plan. In addition, the introductory section of the inventory lists test questions which each proposal for improvement must pass before it can be regarded as workable in the school.

It is too early to estimate the effectiveness of the consensus technique in improving either the school or library program. It would appear that the library, in particular, would benefit, inasmuch as the carrying out of its program is so directly dependent upon understanding by teachers and pupils. The success of the consensus study hinges upon the effectiveness of the discussion in enlarging the area of consensus. Recognition of this fact led to the organization of six workshops during the fall of 1952 to train discussion leaders for the studies. The school librarian will necessarily play an important role in the outcome of the consensus study in his area. His objectivity, capability, and interest in an improved program cannot but influence the results of the study. The extent of improvement possible where library programs

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are handicapped by a reactionary librarian is in doubt. The Illinois School Library Association will provide librarians to work in the study with schools which do not have a librarian.

The progress of the Illinois Consensus Study Program will be watched with interest by all school librarians. Participation is on a voluntary basis and schools are encouraged to undertake only one study each year. How frequently the library area will be selected is not known. Library leaders anticipate a number of library studies early in the experiment as a result of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, which has awakened many schools to the need for library improvement. In the meantime, school librarians outside Illinois will find Inventories A and B helpful guides to stimulate faculty recognition of the aims and principles inherent in an up-to-date library program.

Thus it may be seen that procedures and tools for evaluating the effectiveness of the school library have undergone marked changes during the last decade and a half. As a result, the educational function of the school library in attaining the school's objectives, and the quality of library service, have been recognized as the important aspects, and facilities are judged primarily on the basis of their use rather than their presence. Evaluation is considered an essential element in library planning, to be justified only in terms of the utilization of the results in constructing an improved program. Recognition by the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program of the need for informed participation by an entire faculty and representatives of student and community groups in planning the school program, if optimum educational results are to be achieved, has led to the development of an entirely new technique, which holds great promise for improvement of the school library program as well as subject areas.

Further research is still needed. The services and facilities of the library in the elementary school are not entirely identical with those of the secondary school library, because of differences in the educational needs of children and youth. Thus far, devices other than standards for evaluating library programs have been designed only for the secondary school library. Work is in progress, however, on an edition of the *Evaluative Criteria* for the elementary school, and on a planning guide for the elementary school library which will follow the general pattern of the tools already available for the secondary school. The effect of the library on individual students, and its contribution to their growth, needs to be noted precisely if the true significance of

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library service in the school is to be established. Thus far, evaluation has concerned itself only with an appraisal of the services offered to students, and the question of whether the library can be evaluated in terms of changes in student behavior remains unanswered. If we can discover what good library service does for students, we shall be in a better position to demand and get the adequate support so far denied to a large number of school libraries.

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Research in the School Library Field

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THE LACK OF effective means of communicating the results of research done in the various library schools has been one of the major frustrations associated with such research. Too often the fruits of studies have been available only to the students of the particular library school where they were originally done, or to those few people from other library schools or interested agencies who could afford to come where they could be examined.

Although this situation still pertains in too many instances, more research information is available than formerly. The indexing of studies has become more prompt and complete, due to the initiation of a recent cooperative plan by *Library Literature* with the major library schools of the country through the agency of the Association of American Library Schools. More library schools provide notes, explaining methods and indicating results, to accompany the thesis entries in this publication. In 1950 *Library Quarterly* began an annual listing by library schools of theses and dissertations accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the master's or doctor's degree. It has been found that this annual compilation, although containing many of the entries to be found in *Library Literature*, does list supplementary thesis titles. Also, the English serial, *Library Science Abstracts*, with its excellent summaries, is a new factor in the availability of information about research. Not the least of its values lie in the differences of interpretation of aims and results because of its British point of view. The most important development, however, is the increasing availability of the research itself through the medium of microfilm.

Just when improvements in the availability of previous findings seemed to indicate a more promising future for investigation in the library field, the effects of the change in the programs of library education began to be felt. Most of the research in the library field has

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been done in connection with theses for master's degrees. With the virtual discontinuance of the old B.S. in L.S. and the offering of a master's degree for the first year of professional study beyond the baccalaureate, thesis requirements have been greatly changed. In 1951 Carnovsky [1] reported that only ten of the thirty-six accredited library schools stipulated theses for a master's degree; that in eight it is optional; and that five other library schools accepted a research report or something similar in its place. An equally important change has occurred at the Ph.D. level. Until 1948 the only library school offering a Ph.D. in library science was the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. For almost twenty years Columbia University and the Universities of Illinois and Michigan had authorized doctorates with library science as a minor, but it was not until 1948 that the last two named approved Ph.D. programs in library science, while Columbia University announced its new program for the degree of Doctor of Library Science in the fall of 1951. [2]

The implications for research in the school library field by school librarians are clear. It will be reduced to that represented in the essays coming from the library schools still requiring theses, and to occasional theses or research reports from the remaining library schools. Without the incentive of thesis requirements at the master's level, the average school librarian will produce little systematic research. Although he is in a school situation and may be experimenting with new techniques or making observations which could be expanded into a research project, the nature of his position militates against such studies. If his experiences are recorded in an article for a library periodical, that generally will be about the extent of his contributions to library literature. The average school librarian will find little need or incentive for Ph.D. programs. Research relevant to the school library field from these programs will come primarily from two sources—library educators in the school library field and supervisors of school libraries at the state or large urban levels. It is relevant here that the type of research done at the Ph.D. level, as evidenced by the studies at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, differs considerably in scope and content from that done at the master's level, much of which cannot truly be classified as research. It is at the Ph.D. level that some of the larger problems of school libraries, which Witmer,[3] Heaps,[4] Carnovsky,[5] and Henne [6] have stressed as being worthy of systematic investigation, should finally receive the attention they deserve.

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A study of the research from the major library schools over the period 1927–52 in the school library field reveals two patterns: one, the fairly frequent development of a group of closely related theses within a particular library school; the other, and more significant pattern, the reflection of the major problems confronting the school and the library profession in the investigations of a particular period. An example of the first type can be seen in the series of master's essays at the Columbia University School of Library Service on the adequacy of reviewing media for various subject areas, ranging in content from that of chemical journals for college book selection [7] in 1933 to book reviews for the selection of adult books for high school libraries [8] in 1951. The evidence for the latter will be found in the following discussion of some of the research in the school library field at the major library schools within the last five years, and in the relation of this recent period to preceding ones. Some reference to pertinent literature other than theses and dissertations is included.

One of the persistent problems in the school library field relates to the distribution and nature of school library facilities. For the period 1927–47 Henne [6] estimated that surveys dealing with this subject constituted almost forty per cent of all studies. For 1948–52 the percentage has been much smaller, i.e., a little less than ten per cent. The principal importance of the latter studies, all of which deal with conditions in either the Middle West or the South, is the picture they give of gaps in school library service to particular groups. They destroy any complacency which might have resulted from Beust's interpretation [9] of the *Statistics of Public School Libraries*,[10, 11] for the situations described represent the realities of elementary school library service in cities of the size described by the statistics, and of school library services to Negroes in the District of Columbia [12, 13] and Virginia.[14] Another survey describes the libraries of unaccredited Southern schools,[15] most of which are in communities somewhat smaller than those represented by the statistical report.

Statistics have their values, but can be interpreted in many ways. For that reason there will always be room for the carefully prepared evaluative type of survey which presents the realities of a certain situation. Photographic views of school library quarters would also be useful for this purpose, and could be reproduced easily and exhibited to tell the public as well as the library profession of the contrasts in educational opportunity. The greatest need in this area is for a series of well-articulated regional evaluative studies covering

all types of library service to children and young people. Such a national overview would be invaluable for planning and improving library service.

The line between the survey and historical research is a tenuous one at times, if it exists at all. An example of the difficulty of distinguishing between the two is revealed in McCusker's [16] study of accredited school libraries in Iowa, which combines a survey with a study of development. Another piece of work of this type is Neal's examination [17] of the services of the Arkansas State Library Commission to the schools of the state. Gates [18] traces the progress which has been made in both the school and public library fields in the same state during the last quarter century by means of county surveys of library facilities. Two historical investigations have shown the development of school libraries in the state of Kentucky. Galloway [19] has written a history of the public high school libraries from the establishment of a statewide system of high schools to the present time, and includes a brief survey of public education in Kentucky. Clardy [20] has traced the contribution of state supervision to the development of Kentucky schools.

One of the most important contributions to the library field is the dissertation by the late Frances E. Hammitt, *School Library Legislation in Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin: a Historical Study.*[21] Following a resumé of school library history with special reference to the Midwest, she traced the legislative story of the school library in each of the three states against the background of their respective educational development. This study is marked by a quality unusual in such work —good literary style. Comprehensive and scholarly, Hammitt's work provides the cornerstone for the long-proposed history of the school library.

In the area of organization and administration of school library services, thirteen studies were tabulated. They range in complexity from a plan for the organization of a school libraries division in the West Virginia State Department of Education [22] to the kinds of shelving best suited to a school library.[23] Krentzman [24] explored the problem of state supervision of school library service to determine what the position in a state department of education comprehends, and what the results of such supervision have been. Maddox [25] studied school library supervisory programs in city school systems to ascertain the supervisory functions and services carried on and needed in city schools, and the characteristics of good direction.

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In 1943 Bennett [26] proposed a plan for the administration of school library service in Indiana on a regional basis to promote better results at reasonable cost, without changes in governmental or school units and leaving initiative and control in the hands of local authorities. In 1945 in the adjoining state of Illinois, legislation was passed for the consolidation of school districts to produce the community unit district. In 1951 James [27] studied thirty of the resultant districts to determine whether an elementary school library program had emerged from this consolidation with a sufficiently definite pattern to be helpful for future planning. From the improvements in services and materials discovered in her survey, James found a guide for planning betterment in community unit districts which had little or no provision for libraries in their schools. It is interesting to see in James's report parallels to Bennett's earlier proposals—the larger unit of service, the coordination of materials and activities, the centralization of stock and technical processes, the development of new services—although they are on a much smaller scale. Whether or not Bennett's proposal had any influence in the development of libraries in this new type of consolidated district remains to be seen. Since it is quite generally agreed that it is only through larger units of services that educational opportunities in rural areas and small communities can be improved, James's report is of value to school administrators as well as to librarians. Another study which should be of value in this connection is Alexander's study [28] of budgetary procedures. Her findings could do much to eliminate those practices which hinder rather than encourage improvement.

In this day of expanding school facilities to meet the needs of a growing population, the research necessary to plan adequate library quarters for schools has come from an organization, the Subcommittee on Library Service to Schools of the Planning Board of the Illinois Library Association. [29] Its publication, *Planning School Library Quarters*, is an interpretation of modern school philosophy in terms of physical requirements.

In the area of organization and administration, there remain many needs. The necessity and merits of elementary school library service are clear, at least, to school librarians. Studies should be made of the actual organization and administration of elementary school libraries, to determine whether or not they are an integral part of the school. The values of the elementary school library have been seriously challenged in Pennsylvania, and in one of the states of the Pacific North-

west, on the ground that they do not contribute materially to the schools' program. With rising prices, and the difficulties in providing adequate school monies from the present tax bases, the importance of getting the best use from funds available becomes markedly greater. To this end job analyses, examination of procedures, and cost analyses are essential. Further studies of the organization and operation of larger units of service, and determination of their strengths and weaknesses are needed to facilitate improved planning for the future.

The major portion of investigation for the period 1948–52 concerned the educational functions and activities of the school library. Without including the studies on reading, which will be considered separately, thirty investigations were tabulated by the present author. The term "investigation" is used advisedly, for some of the studies are little more than a loosely knit combination of experiences against a partial survey of the literature of the field. For that reason, only those studies which make a genuine contribution or with unusual subject matter will be indicated for bibliographical entry or discussed. The principal topics treated were the guidance functions of the library, particularly in the field of social adjustment, the place and training of student assistants in the library, and library instruction.

Itamura's study [30] of the literature on administration of the secondary school, to discover the presentation given the high school library, is both encouraging and discouraging. Most writers consider high school libraries essential—one wonders sometimes if from conviction or from the existence of regional standards—but few suggest that the school library holds an administrative problem, and that the success or failure of the library program depends on the administration. Mahar [31] has thoroughly explored the modern concepts of the educational function of the school library and has weighed them against the activities and services of a selected group of high school libraries which meet the A.L.A. standards for personnel, and where the school philosophy and program are such that progressive programs of service should be operative. Where there were obvious discrepancies, she attempted to ascertain causes. Welsh,[32] a librarian of a vocational high school, has surveyed the quarters, holdings, and personnel of selected vocational high schools and has analyzed services to students and curriculum. The educational and service role of a student library club has been studied by DeAngelo.[33] In an investigation of correlated library instruction in secondary schools, Calloway [34] discovered that although a large percentage of high schools offer instruction in library use, there was lack

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of integration of such instruction with either school programs or school objectives. Geiger [35] studied the publicity activities in senior high school libraries reported by librarians, teachers, and student groups, and had the eighty-five activities reported ranked for educational value by eight specialists in the field. Her findings regarding the most educationally valid types of publicity activities are of special value to practicing school librarians.

In this day of challenge to education as a whole, any steps which can be taken to improve the effectiveness of the school library will help to insure better understanding of that part of the educational system and to bring better support financially and philosophically. As school library service is introduced into new places, "before-and-after" studies of the effects of the library on student reading interests, amount and quality of reading, responsibility for books and library materials, attitudes toward service, differences in kinds of classroom teaching, the use made of library materials, involving all the assumptions of values of the school library, need to be made.

In view of the public interest in the subject of reading, it is not surprising that the number of studies dealing with various phases of this topic in the period of this review of research equals that treating the other varied educational functions of the library. Twelve of the thirty investigations deal with the general reading interests of high school youngsters, and three with interests of this age group in specific areas. For the most part they are either very general in nature, or are so restricted to the limits of one school or of grade groupings within one school, to have comparatively little value to anyone outside the particular system. The one reservation here is that they may provide some future researcher a body of findings comparable with those of Norvell's twelve-year study [36] on reading interests which, despite the volume of its data, is not considered definitive by this writer. Four studies in this field are concerned with books and remedial reading. A reflection of current interest in readability [37, 38] is seen in the two investigations of this topic.

A major contribution to the whole literature of reading is Henne's *Preconditional Factors Affecting the Reading of Young People.* [39] After assaying the status of reading in the curriculum, she analyzes the general characteristics of young people as readers, i.e., the time spent in reading and the amount and kind of reading. Each of the preconditional factors that presumably affect motivation and reading patterns —accessibility and availability of materials, purpose and motivation,

and interests of adolescents—is discussed in a separate section, as are their implications for the secondary school library. These are in turn related to the identification of the school library's place in the reading program of the secondary school. The larger aspects of the matter, as related to national, regional, and local planning of school libraries, are identified and possible solutions suggested.

Each school, and each type of school — elementary, junior high, senior high, vocational, academic, university elementary and high—has its own reading problems. Some of the problems are common to all. Although there are generalizations which can be made about reading interests of children and young people, there are differences in the interests of the urban and rural child, and of youngsters living in the various regional and geographic areas. What does the child who is beginning to read actually select when given a wide variety of materials from which to choose? How does his reading differ from that of the child who has access to one basal reading set, or to a variety of such sets? Is there variation in the amount and kind of reading problems at any given school level among youngsters from these different backgrounds of reading experience? These are only a few of the subjects on which further research is needed.

Closely allied to the previous topics is that of materials for the school library. Of the seventeen studies concerning these, ten deal with the selection of books for various purposes, three with periodical choices and use, and four with audio-visual aids. As bearing on the first group, *A Vocational High School Supplement to the Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* [40] has greatest value at the present time. Margaret Welch, an experienced librarian in the vocational school field, has compiled this buying guide for her type of school. In addition, she has written a short history of such institutions and has discussed some of the particular problems affecting their situation. Her book, together with the study by Helen Welsh,[32] adds considerably to the small amount of pertinent information available. Masson [41] has compiled a list of government documents from widely scattered sources which would be useful in high school home economics courses, and has given illustrations of possible uses of certain of the publications by both teacher and pupil. The two bibliographies on family relationships [42, 43] may be valuable in home economics courses, guidance, and social studies. The treatments of audio-visual aids are largely survey in type, and deal very little with the educational implications in the use of such materials. On this subject, although the number of investigations

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at the library schools has increased, the best research continues to be done by outside agencies.

In the present period of stress, it is to be expected that the problem of censorship should be taken up. However, as far as could be discovered, Eakin's study [44] of 1948 is the only one specifically dealing on this matter with high school library books. In answers to a questionnaire from 120 librarians in all parts of the country, it was reported that some degree of censorship exists in the purchase and use of materials in secondary school libraries, and that the pressures for it come from persons within and individuals and groups outside the school. Most of the concern was with the effects of certain books on adolescent attitudes, yet there was little agreement as to exactly what books or what aspects of them constituted danger to attitudes and to morals. As the result of her study, Eakin recommended policies to be adopted as a guide in selecting books for adolescents.

The area of materials remains a fruitful one for investigation. As larger units of school library service are brought into being, the question as to the need for a selection policy should be investigated. Would the principles adopted by the Enoch Pratt Free Library [45] be equally applicable to a school situation? One of the great needs is an evaluation of standard book selection tools in the light of curriculum and student needs. Analyses of the use of a selected list of magazines by students in a variety of school situations would provide data for further evaluation of school magazine purchases. As audio-visual centers acquire rental libraries of filmstrips, the relative feasibility of purchase or rental needs to be considered. The question of which audio-visual aids are most effective in library instruction, and under what circumstances, should be investigated.

These previously mentioned studies of magazines and newspapers as mass media were made from the point of view of materials rather than that of their effects on the reader. From the point of view of library research, interest in the comics seems to be on the wane. Both studies done during the period of this review consist largely of summaries of previous investigations on this topic. In the main, research in the field of communications has been done by agencies outside the library. Studies of content, retention, and the relation of frequency to learning, are the principal types of research at the present time, and are probably the ones of greatest significance to the school librarian. Some of the follow-up reports on earlier television investigations show that the long-range effects on reading are not as bad as early investiga-

tions indicated. Although an immediate fall in reading following acquisition of a television set is reported, there is a return to a normal reading pattern after the period of novelty has passed. Some children and adults even reported being stimulated to read by television. In a study of children's reactions to radio adaptations of books, O'Brien [46] found that ten-year-olds were quite capable of rating such programs, that their criticisms of scripts and productions were valid, and that the characteristics of radio programs which affected children's reactions applied equally well to television and recorded programs.

In order to more fully understand what is going on in the field of communication, it is important that the school librarian should at least try to keep abreast of developments. In many instances the results of research are of more importance than the research itself.

The pattern of interest in school library personnel and training for school library work has definitely been a product of the times. In the late 1920's there were some studies touching it. Then came the depression, with the over-supply of school librarians and the unfortunately prevalent attitude that school librarians were not essential. Personnel and training were passed over in choosing thesis topics. When the discrepancies between demand and supply began to be apparent in the market, these topics began to reappear, and they formed an important part of the research undertaken.

In her study of the status of secondary school librarians in cities of 20,000 to 250,000 in New York and New Jersey, Annable [47] sent questionnaires to supervisors, principals, and librarians to ascertain the relative positions of teachers and librarians as to qualifications, salaries, hours, prerogatives, and faculty status; and of librarians, department heads, and supervisors. She also obtained reactions as to the desirability of department head status for librarians. Since New York City continues to classify school librarians as clerical staff, such a study is particularly pertinent to that section. Another facet of the history of school library service in Arkansas [17, 18] is Dunaway's examination [48] of the progress made toward meeting the 1952–53 standards for training school librarians of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools by college and state agencies. The purposes of a study by Galbraith [49] were to learn what school library functions administrators feel make the greatest contributions to the school program, and to determine whether library school curricula provide for instruction in these functions. Her findings raise several questions as to the

adequacy of preparation for essential school library work by library schools.

The American Library Association has recently issued two new statements of standards [50, 51] which are discussed elsewhere in this issue of *Library Trends*. Ersted,[52] who worked with the Board of Education for Librarianship on standards for teacher education institutions in library science programs, developed concurrently her thesis *The Education of School Librarians*, in which she tested certain hypotheses concerning adequate educational programs for school librarians, and arrived at a proposed basic program.

Interest in standards has recurred at almost regular intervals since the beginning of systematic research in the school library field. With the recent humanizing of standards it has been rising. Piscitello [53] traced the development of standards from 1918 to 1949, and their change in emphasis from goods to services. Where early criteria seemed to exist for their own sake, the new ones have been developed primarily for measuring purposes. *Evaluative Criteria*,[54] which appeared in 1939, probably has been an influential factor in this interest. Another thought-provoking instrument is *A Planning Guide for the High School Library Program*,[55] with its emphasis on school objectives, aspects of service in terms of them, and long-range planning. The Local Area Consensus Studies,[56] sponsored by the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, represent an effort to get school and community agreement on the school's problems and programs. Of special interest to librarians are Inventory A, *What Do You Think About Our School Library Program?*[57] and Inventory B, *In What Respects Should We Strengthen Our School Library Program?*[58] Like the other inventories in the Area Consensus Studies, these are to be checked by pupils, parents, laymen, and faculty members to determine the present and future role of the school library in the school and community. The data on this section of the study are being gathered and will be interpreted by Alice Lohrer as part of her Ph.D. dissertation at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. Such evaluation is a forward step, inasmuch as it brings the public, upon whom final support of the school system rests, into an active role.

Evaluative studies of school libraries in demonstration schools which train teachers are needed, particularly as they supposedly are factors in developing library consciousness among future teachers. Investigations should be made of the effects of evaluation on school library

programs. Further investigations of the type of Lohrer's are needed, not only to get at the value of school libraries, but to acquaint the public with the purposes and services of such agencies.

As has been made obvious, the needs for research in the school library field are great. Some of the larger problems lend themselves to the kind of investigation undertaken at the Ph.D. level. However, a vast body of smaller projects need exploration. Whether or not this sort of investigation will almost disappear is dependent to a large extent upon the five-year programs of library science in teacher education institutions under the new A.L.A. Standards.[61]

Whatever the source of research, one need is paramount, i.e., improved communication of the results of research. Closer cooperation with *Library Literature* in supplying entries and informative summaries would be an important step in this direction. Where theses or dissertations are available neither on interlibrary loan nor microfilm, a gap in the availability of research results would be closed if two-page abstracts of their contents and conclusions could be duplicated and made available to those interested, at a small sum. Such improvements in the accessibility of findings would do much to avoid duplication of effort, and would provide a much more thorough picture of the amount and kind of investigation, whatever the phase of study. Equally important is the need for spreading the news about research results. The outcomes of studies like that of James[27] are as important to administrators as to librarians. Again, administrators and teachers as well as practicing librarians would be interested in the publicity activities listed in the Geiger[35] study. The direct and implied criticisms of preparation for school librarianship in the findings of Mahar,[31] Geiger,[35] Krentzman,[24] Maddox,[25] Galbraith[49] and Ersted[52] should be considered by library schools in planning curriculum revision. When the results of research in the school library field are more effectively communicated, such research will assume the roles for which it was intended, i.e., those of adding to knowledge and helping in the revision of accepted conclusions.

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The School Library Movement
in England and Wales

C. A. STOTT

A DISCUSSION of the school library movement in England and Wales will be clearer if some preface is given about the background of the English educational system.[1-6] Scottish education has developed on its own parallel but independent lines. Until recently it was correct to speak of two systems within English education itself. There was, in the first place, the old "grammar school" tradition,[7,8] stemming directly from the main Christian European tradition. This derived, further back still, almost uninterruptedly from Rome and the Athens of Pericles and Plato. In contrast to it was the recent "elementary" system — the schools first established by individuals and societies, and nationally organized under the "elementary code" set up by the 1870 Act, which for the first time made a system of education available (later compulsory) for all whom the "grammar school" tradition had not touched.

It is important to realize how very different these two systems were. The grammar school tradition (and under the term "grammar school" are included the independent schools mainly for boarders, which came to be known as "public schools" because they drew their pupils from the country as a whole and not from a particular district) was "European" in that a great part of the teaching was based, like that of nearly all comparable schools on the Continent, on Latin and to a less extent Greek, and had a common general aim. It was *for a minority*. Even after the great expansion of grammar schools that followed the Renaissance and Reformation these schools never reached more than a minority of the boys. It was *for a governing class*—no doubt, not planned consciously so, though in fact, these schools supplied all the professions and the leaders of national life. Finally, it was a

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masculine tradition—little serious attention was paid to the systematic schooling of girls.

The grammar school enshrined and preserved a tradition of learning for its own sake,[9] as a part of what now would be called the "Christian way of life," reminiscent of the phrase "godliness and good learning" written into the deeds of many old schools by their founders. This tradition of "good learning" was greatly emphasized in the Victorian period and extended to a wide array of subjects never contemplated by the founders of the schools, but which were brought one by one into the curriculum: modern languages, history, science, geography, and art. These were placed side by side with the established classical studies. Thus the teaching work of the school was immeasurably widened and enriched, and the standard set in the older subjects extended to the new. Meanwhile the national system of public examinations,[10] developed in the first half of the present century, promoted a high level of attainment throughout the range of school work, despite certain drawbacks. Also important was the great extension of school life outside the classroom – in games, clubs, societies, and other activities. Furthermore, the last hundred years have been marked by the rise everywhere of girls' grammar schools based on the same ideals as the boys'.

The early elementary schools [11] and the education acts which regulated them never contemplated an extension of this grammar school type of education to all other school children. Their aim was a much simpler one: to make sure that all children reached a minimum standard of literacy ("to read, to write, and to compute"). Part of the driving force behind the movement was philanthropic. Another motive was provided by the extension of the franchise—"we must educate our masters," as it was put in 1867. About then came the warning of the Austro-Prussian War, when the "better educated" Germans defeated Austria. There was also the social and economic reason, namely that the system of society which had grown out of the Industrial Revolution was unworkable with an illiterate population.[12] An "elementary code" was drawn up, stating the conditions under which children should be taught from the ages of "not less than five" to "not more than thirteen" which was raised by 1939 to "at least fifteen." Hundreds of schools were added to those which had been hitherto provided by voluntary effort, and great hopes were entertained by well-wishers. If the early results disappointed observers like Matthew Arnold, much was nevertheless achieved. But the classes were very

large (ninety was not unknown, a figure reached again in some cases during the Second World War), and methods of mass-instruction had to be employed, with very little adjustment possible to the needs of the individual child.

With the new century new winds began to blow, and these affected the whole attitude toward education, both in elementary and in grammar schools. There came a new sense of the child himself as the center of educational thought and effort, and far more serious attention was paid to child psychology. The opening of wide new horizons with the introduction of new subjects into the curriculum of the grammar schools has already been mentioned. The same was happening within the elementary schools; and the conception of learning as inquiry as well as instruction was beginning to influence teaching methods. In both traditions of education—that of the grammar school and of the elementary school—the new spirit was beginning to make obsolete the old methods of pure textbook and class instruction and the conception of knowledge as fact to be remembered;[13] though it took a long time for this to be generally recognized and the natural corollary drawn.

Before turning to consider this new situation and the ways in which the school library offers the means of dealing with it, it is necessary to say something about the reorganization of English education which began with the Act of 1944[14] and which is still in progress.

This Act was passed by Churchill's coalition government in the last year of World War II. At that time the president of the Board of Education, as the Minister responsible for education was then called, was R. A. Butler, the present Chancellor of the Exchequer. The Butler Act created a "Minister to promote education in England and Wales." In its reorganization the Act followed the lines of the great Hadow Reports[1, 3] and provided free and compulsory education for all in three stages: "primary,"[15] for children up to eleven; "secondary," from eleven onward; and "further," or education after leaving school. The term "secondary," which had hitherto denoted a *type* of education— the grammar school—now denoted a *stage*[16] of education, of three alternative kinds: (1) grammar, giving, as hitherto, the more "academic" form of education; (2) technical; and (3) modern,[17] providing for all the children not embraced in (1) or (2). Of the children from eleven to fifteen years of age the secondary modern schools provide for about four-fifths, the actual proportion varying according to the geographical area. These children had previously been in-

cluded by the three or four top classes of the old elementary schools.

But while an Act may change the whole face of organized education, it cannot by a stroke of the pen remake buildings and equipment, especially at the end of an exhausting war. What is even more important, it cannot rapidly change teachers and traditional methods. One immensely important thing it did do; it made posssible for the first time over the whole field a sense of national unity and common purpose.

Before discussing the school library movement, one must again look at its historical background. Many books on the history of English education have something to say about books and even libraries in schools at an early date. School libraries still in existence go back uninterruptedly to the middle ages, and perhaps earlier still. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries some schoolmasters were aware of needs on which we are still laying stress: the need of books for reference, of books for general reading, of books to supply information for exercises in composition.[7] Much more recently, and specifically in the early days of the elementary school, there are similar references to the need for collections of books. The Cross Report [18] says: "There is room for much improvement in reading ... accordingly the establishment of class libraries is strongly to be recommended."

But a school library movement in the effective sense is really a product of the inter-war years, and especially of the 1930's. In the early years of this century a typical grammar school library consisted of two parts: a collection of books, and often a very good one, on the subjects studied in the Sixth Form (the most advanced work); and "recreational reading," mainly though not entirely of fiction, for the younger members of the school. There was no definite guidance available on its administration and management.

In the 1930's the position rapidly changed. In 1934 the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust set up a strong committee to inquire into, and report on, the provision of libraries in secondary (i.e., grammar) schools and to make recommendations. Its report [19] marked an important stage in public recognition of the case for school libraries. In 1934 also the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters, the professional organization of men-teachers in grammar schools, set up a small committee to consider the organization of grammar school libraries. This committee produced in 1937 the *Guide for School Librarians*,[20] laying special stress on sound technical practice. In 1935 the Board of Education, the predecessor of the present Ministry of

Education, arranged a week's course for forty grammar school teachers on the organization and use of libraries in secondary schools. It was an experiment, but a most successful one, and it was repeated yearly until the war. In 1936 appeared the first English periodical devoted to school libraries, the *School Library Review* (now the *School Library Review and Educational Record*); and the same year saw the preliminary moves which led in 1937 to the almost simultaneous foundation of two separate organizations of teacher-librarians—one independent, the School Library Association, the other within the Library Association, the School Libraries Section of the Library Association. At the outbreak of the war, these two organizations, which could not fail to be in a sense rivals, included as members some 350 to 400 grammar schools.

The war naturally checked further advance. There was in fact some falling off in membership, not unnatural considering that many schools were evacuated—some in two or three sections—and there was wide disorganization of education. But a good deal of thought was being devoted to the problem of the school library and its place in education, especially in view of the situation likely to prevail after the war. In 1941 the School Library Association set up a small subcommittee, which drew up a "Draft Report." [21] Immediately after this the two associations collaborated in producing a further report, to cover the field of elementary education. While this was in preparation the 1944 Act was passed, by which English education was transformed, as has been already described. The "Joint Report," as it was called, was issued in 1945 as *School Libraries in Post-War Reconstruction*.[22] This covered much wider ground than the 1943 "Draft Report," and included appendixes headed, "Training in the Use of the Library and in School Library Administration," and "Relations between the School Library and the Public Library System." It came immediately to be regarded as an authoritative exposition of progressive opinion on the whole question of school library provision and use. It was reissued, without change of text, but with a new introduction and with a commentary, in 1950, as *School Libraries Today*.[23] But by far the most important result of the collaboration of the two associations was their union in 1946 as a single association—the present independent School Library Association.

The chief immediate problems which confronted the united association lay in the wide new field opened up through the enlargement of the secondary stage of education by the Butler Act. They particularly

involved helping the "new secondary schools"—the secondary modern schools—in what was virtually unexplored territory. Very few of the predecessors of these institutions, the old elementary schools, had anything which could be called a library, though in some areas the public libraries had done what they could to provide small loan collections. Practically no elementary school had ever had a library room; most were seriously overcrowded, for many schools had been damaged or destroyed, and no building had been done for six or seven years; very seldom had grants been made to elementary schools for library purposes, and there was almost no tradition of "library work."

In the Building Regulations appended to the Butler Act it was laid down that every secondary school to be built in the future was to be provided with a library room, minimum dimensions for which were given. This clearly implied a policy of the Ministry that every secondary school, secondary modern no less than grammar, should have its library. It was a revolutionary change in view of what has been said on the "two traditions," but, so far as premises were concerned, it was a very distant objective and could not affect the hundreds of schools still housed in their prewar elementary school buildings. However, the importance of this official recognition of the need for libraries in all secondary schools could not be overestimated.

The first action taken by the School Library Association was to issue a short leaflet [24] giving suggestions for the organization and use of a collection of books as a library, when housed in a room which could not be spared from class teaching. This leaflet was followed by others dealing in a simple way with problems likely to be common, with special regard to the new secondary schools. The most encouraging feature of the postwar growth of the Association has been its large membership in these schools now standing at perhaps eight hundred. The principle of financial grants, even though they are rarely adequate as yet, is at any rate becoming recognized by local authorities; and the body of experience of library use in these schools is constantly growing. Few of these schools take the public examinations used by grammar schools; their curriculum is much more elastic, and much interesting experimental work is being done.

The movement as a whole has had in the meanwhile the close interest and sympathy of the Ministry itself, shown in various ways. Local administration of education is not carried out by the Ministry, but by Local Education Authorities locally elected; and while these must conform within broad limits to certain general conditions (e.g.,

the Building Regulations previously mentioned), they have very considerable local freedom. There may, for instance, be a Ministry regulation on the provision of a library room, but there is no definite instruction that such-and-such (or any) grant shall be provided for initiating or maintaining a library. Authorities, therefore, vary astonishingly both in their general policy regarding the provision of school libraries and in the funds they supply. This freedom is jealously guarded.

On the other hand, the Ministry could not permit public policy to be disregarded, and it has, through its Inspectorate, a means of influencing and educating local opinion. The way in which the movement extends is by a mixture of encouragement, example, and persuasion. It is a comparatively slow way but perhaps the most effective one in the end. The local branches of the School Library Association help to keep local opinion alive to the need.

In 1947 the Ministry resumed the short courses on the organization and use of school libraries, on the general pattern of those held before the war but with significant changes: (1) some half of the teachers attending them have come from secondary modern schools; (2) the stress has shifted from organization and technique to educational uses. The courses now last ten days, and they have been repeated yearly. Some had wondered if the very different traditions of the grammar school and the secondary modern school might not make the instruction somewhat incoherent, but the reverse has proved to be true. The two groups of teachers have learned much from one another.

In certain cases it has been a practice of the Ministry to make some financial grant where a voluntary organization is doing work of value to public policy but is hampered through lack of funds. Until 1948 the Association depended solely on the unpaid services of officers and others who were themselves fully occupied as teachers, and on its income from members' subscriptions. In the years after the war expenses rose considerably, especially in paper, printing, and travel. The Association was growing, and office work was becoming greater than spare-time administration could cope with. In 1948, and since, the Association has received grants from the Ministry which have made it possible to rent a modest office in London and enjoy the services of a full-time business secretary. The grant is neither automatic nor permanent, however. It has been, and is, invaluable in helping the Association to surmount the great difficulties of its recent expansion.

It would be well now to pause and take stock of the present situation and deal with points of view prevailing on certain special aspects, i.e., (1) the educational uses of the school library; (2) its stock; (3) its organization; (4) the school librarian—his work and training; (5) library premises; and (6) libraries in primary schools. This may show what trends or tendencies can be detected.

Uses of the Library.[25-28] An agreed doctrine seems to have emerged on the contribution which the library can offer to the educational work of the school. This contribution may be summarized as follows:

(a) The library makes it possible to enrich and broaden the ordinary teaching of the classroom by providing additional material of all kinds for illustration and reading, in or out of class.

(b) It provides a collection of quick reference books such as are needed for answering straightforward informational questions, or for checking facts.

(c) It provides material of all kinds to foster and develop personal and active interests, from simple games or hobbies, notably making, collecting, doing, watching things, to a wide range of pursuits which may be termed cultural in the best and fullest sense, for example those of music, art, and politics, in the upper forms of a grammar school. What is common to all is that, at different levels of taste, intellect, and experience, such interests are taken up by the child on his own initiative, are active, and can be pursued with some persistence. Far too much of the pleasure of adults is passive—having things done for them or watching other people doing things. The provision of this "active interest" material, with regard to the all-round development of personality, is one of the most valuable services a school library can render.

(d) The library makes it possible to organize instruction in the use of books and of a library as sources of information. The effective and critical use of books, and of the printed word generally, is a difficult and very precious skill. It does not come by nature, and if it is not learned, in however small a degree, at school, it is not likely that it will be learned afterward. However, such instruction should not be given *in vacuo*, but always with a definite objective in view. Some even say that none should be offered unless the need for it arises out of a particular piece of work in hand;[29] others feel that there must be some definite syllabus of training if the ground is to be systematically covered. Both emphasize the need for purpose to be felt

in any teaching provided, and feel some distrust of disconnected questions of a quiz type. It is common ground that "library instruction" must not on any account become a new "subject" in the curriculum.

(e) It is agreed that for older pupils, working at an advanced level, some special introduction to the use of the library for their particular line of study is advisable; and that this is most appropriately given by the teacher in charge of the subject, and not by the librarian, since he cannot be a specialist in all departments. The school library provides the opportunity to apply this instruction in work connected with the curriculum at almost any stage—in simple answers to straightforward questions, checking of facts, using books as sources, constructing simple paragraphs based on information collected, estimating the usefulness of a book for a particular purpose, judging alternative sources, and writing of individual or cooperative essays, as in so-called "project" work. The use of the library in such a way has been common in the upper forms of grammar schools, and secondary modern schools are tending to follow that pattern. Such work cannot be done without an adequate collection of books, always available.

(f) Finally, the library provides opportunities for children to exercise a variety of useful responsibilities connected with the administration of the library, such as supervision, day-to-day routine, craft work, lettering, service on committees or as representatives of classes. Many schools have developed strongly this side of school library activities and call perhaps in one way or another on ten per cent of the pupils. This does much to make the library felt as the common possession and concern of the school.

Bookstock.[30, 31] From what has been said concerning the uses of a school library, certain general principles follow about its stock. As it is often put, a good school library should cover the whole expanse of human achievement, knowledge, and imagination, so far as it comes within the capacity of the pupils who use it. Its book selection, therefore, requires work in two dimensions. Horizontally, it must cover the full extent of subject-matter; but vertically, it must provide, throughout the subject areas, for each level of age, intelligence, and taste. A grammar school, catering for children working up to university level, will require a much wider "vertical" range of books than a secondary modern school of the same size, whose pupils leave mainly in their sixteenth year.

No very definite estimates have yet been ventured on the optimum size of a school library. It has been conjectured that for a secondary

modern school of five hundred to six hundred pupils the minimum "basic stock" may be about one thousand volumes; for a grammar school, sixteen hundred.[21] Basic stock is defined as the lowest figure on which *all* the uses of the library described above might be attempted; it is a bare minimum figure.

Whether there is a maximum useful size, beyond which a school library need or should not grow, has hardly become as yet a matter of practical importance, except where new schools are being planned and it is necessary to have some idea what stock is ultimately to be provided for. Figures suggested have been six thousand for a secondary modern school and ten thousand for a grammar school; but many grammar schools, especially the larger ones, and the public schools have considerably more. It must be admitted that as yet there is little definite information on which to form an opinion. This writer feels that ten thousand may prove to be well below a useful maximum for a grammar school that makes good use of its library. Certainly in all too many cases libraries which were expected to be big enough for all anticipated growth have proved to be too small. This question has of course a most important bearing on planning.

This is not the place to discuss the principles of book-selection in detail; but it is worth while to call attention to the need which is experienced for two special types of books. These are: (a) books for backward or retarded readers, written in simple language but with an adolescent or adult appeal;[32, 33] and (b) good books for intelligent but non-specialist readers on important subjects of human concern, notably religion, philosophy, art, science, social and political problems. Such books can be of inestimable value in broadening the outlook, whereas specialization may tend to fix it too narrowly.

As teacher-librarian at Aldenham School since 1924, it has been a particularly interesting experience for this writer to watch the different patterns taken by boys' reading. Some boys confine most of their reading to recreational fiction (the typical "lower school" reading fifty years ago); some to "work" (books used purely for study). Some tend to read several books by the same author in succession, i.e., "chain-reading"—a practice common among younger boys but not unknown among older ones (e.g., one Sixth Form boy read six Trollope novels—not the Barsetshire ones—in as many weeks); or two boys share one another's reading, exchanging books as they finish them. The most interesting experiences have been with "interest" reading of books of information or imagination not read in connection

with school work, thus throwing light on a boy's personality. As bearing on this, a dozen miniature orchestral scores, the gift of a parent who was moving house, were put into the library, about 1934. The expectation that they would not be used was immediately proved mistaken. A considerable collection of orchestral scores has now been built up systematically and has always had a clientele of users, who take them out for musical society meetings, radio concerts, gramophone recitals, or for use at home in the holidays. Such interest corresponds with the noteworthy growth of public interest in music, and knowledge of it in the last twenty-five years. The same applies in a lesser degree to painting and architecture. Similarly there are always groups of boys concerned with farming and various branches of nature study, especially bird-watching. Sport as such plays a much smaller part than it did; and this also seems true of poetry, though there is a good deal of reading of plays. The popularity of music probably is directly due to the work of the British Broadcasting Corporation. It may be, with the development of television, that the visual arts (e.g., painting, sculpture, and architecture) will overtake music in their appeal; it will be interesting to see. Meanwhile the various art books published by the Phaidon Press and Skira Color Studio can help to fill the gap.

This writer has for the last ten years or so, made use of the bookslip method for issuing books and has sometimes, at conferences of teacher-librarians, illustrated boys' "reading lives" (i.e., the reading a boy has done during his school career, as indicated by the books he has borrowed from the library). This has been done by putting up his actual bookslips, arranged in three columns—Work, Interest, Fiction—term by term throughout his time at school. One gets in this way a vivid picture of many different types of library use.

Observation of such reading leads to a number of conclusions. Here are some: (a) Children in a school cover an immense range of interests and needs. There is scarcely any subject that does not find its "fan." (b) Although a need cannot be met unless the material is in the library, often the first intimation that a need exists comes when a book that meets it is put into the library. This is a matter of great importance in the framing of a policy on book-selection. The point is well brought out by W. J. Scott.[34] (c) The old distinction between "work" and "not-work" has long ceased to have a real meaning. Very often the same books serve either end, according to the purpose for which they are used. (d) The provision of books to satisfy personal interests

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is one of the most valuable services in education that a library can possibly render, both in helping to build up the child's personality as a whole, and perhaps in laying the foundation for a worth-while leisure interest for the adult to come. (e) The library never caters to a majority of the children in the school in the sense that most children will ever read any particular book in it; it caters to a whole series of minorities, some of perhaps half a dozen pupils, some of just one. Probably the largest of the minorities thus served (apart from works of popular fiction) is no larger than three or four per cent of the school; but added together they are impressive. It is in this provision for minorities that the library approaches most nearly its chief function in education, and perhaps the chief function of education itself— it is dealing with the individual boy or girl, according to his need. To exclude books within the grasp of pupils on the ground that they are of little interest to the majority of pupils is to run counter to one of the chief services the school library can render. It is easy to be bemused by the "big number" and the pressure of statistics, but the only thing that really matters is the child himself. For this reason, if for no other, there is justification for regarding the school library as one of the most wonderful of the new educational tools.

Organization.[35] The importance of using tested technical methods is now fully recognized. Most school libraries now use Dewey's classification, though commonly with minor modifications; a number use the Cheltenham system, devised for the well-known school library at the Ladies' College, Cheltenham; a few use the Bliss arrangement; and one, at least, the Library of Congress scheme. Naturally public library practice has had much influence, but it has become clear that technical methods suitable for public libraries are not always best for school conditions (for example, some grammar schools use the book-slip method of issue familiar in college libraries and many schools use the book card to be signed by the borrower, rather than the reader's ticket and book card common in the public library). Choice depends largely on local conditions, e.g., whether or not there is always someone on duty whenever the library is open. A good deal of use is made of pupils' help.

An interesting innovation made in the last few years by a few county libraries (where the library is not autonomous, but is controlled by the Education Committee) is the appointment of School Library Advisers. The original idea came from the "Joint Report" [36] which called for the appointment of experienced school librarians to

fill such posts. The advisers appointed have in fact been members of the county library staff.[37-39] They have done an immense amount of good work, especially in helping to make the secondary modern schools in their areas familiar with simple but sound administration, and with help in the choice of books.

A special aspect of organization concerns the library within the school. The commonest way of bringing pupils into contact with the library and of giving instruction and practice in its use is the establishment of "library periods."[28, 40] These are periods, usually of forty minutes each week in which a particular class is assigned to the library. There are many uses to which such a plan can be put. It is generally conceded that it is of especial importance in the first two or three years of a pupil's school life. But the system raises difficult problems when the library is also needed for work or reference by other classes, or for private study by advanced pupils. There seems to be no solution completely satisfactory with a single-room library.

The School Librarian.[28, 41] Here once more the situation is best understood in the light of past experience. The school library movement in England did not arise out of the public library system, but in the educational system itself, and among teachers. For about a century, and especially within the past fifty years, there has grown up in the grammar schools a tradition of voluntary and usually unpaid service of one kind or another to the school outside the classroom. One field of this service has been games; another, school societies or clubs, camps or expeditions. Other activities of educational value have been encouraged as schools widened their conception of the purpose of education. One is responsibility for the school library.

But as libraries grew and views of their function broadened, it became clear that they could not be properly administered in the teacher's spare time. Time for administration was necessary. Two factors outside the control of the school, however, complicated the situation: that of the eligibility of personnel for pensions, which required full-time teaching; and that of the school staffing ratio. The first was solved by a generous interpretation of the term "full-time teaching"; but the second was not met so readily. The more time is allotted to the teacher-librarian for library administration, the more class-teaching has to be done by his colleagues. The only alternative is more generous staffing of the school, and this is expensive and not easy. The position is somewhat less difficult in grammar schools, where there has been a tradition of more generous staffing, than in secondary modern

schools. A full-time librarian is rarely appointed. What can be said is that the nature of the problem is fully recognized.

It is generally felt in schools which take their libraries seriously that the present situation is unsatisfactory. There is a strong case for a very considerable increase in time allotted to library administration, probably amounting in the larger schools to the equivalent at least of a teacher's full time. But even if an increase in the staffing ratio should make this possible, it is unlikely that the whole time would be given by one member of the staff. Here another factor enters. It seems clear that the principle of the teacher-librarian is most congenial to the English school library setup and is not an unfortunate necessity imposed by the economic situation. The educational advantages of the principle are real—the intimate knowledge of the school and the classroom which can only be gained by service as a teacher in them; the familiarity which the teacher-librarian gains of the needs of both the library and the classroom; and the closer integration of the library with the general life of the school. These advantages seem so solid that there seems little likelihood of radical alteration in the policy, except perhaps in the very large multilateral or comprehensive schools that one or two authorities are building. The number of schools with more than about seven hundred pupils is comparatively small.

The solution most likely to be adopted, if a more generous staffing ratio is obtained, will probably be to appoint one member of the staff as teacher-librarian, with one, or perhaps two, colleagues as assistants, each with some portion of his time allotted to library administration. A younger member of the staff, for instance, could be designated as assistant to a senior, which incidentally would help to insure continuity of practice on succession; or the library might be divided between a senior and a junior library, one person being in charge of each. In any case there is a strong tradition growing up of pupil help. Whichever type of solution is adopted—that of the full-time librarian or that of the teacher-librarian—something has to be surrendered.

The need for systematic training of school librarians [42] has long been felt. The short courses of the Board of Education were not designed to meet this need, but to lay down general lines of sound practice which could be followed up in administration. The "Joint Report" [43] contained an appendix dealing with the problem. It suggested three types of courses: (a) a short course for all university students in the use of books and a library in personal study (This is not, strictly speaking, relevant here, except to emphasize by implication the need for

training in library-use at school.), (b) a general course for teachers in training, which would cover the educational uses of the school library and its application to the needs of their own subject, and (c) a special course for teachers wishing to be teacher-librarians. The last would treat all branches of the school librarian's work—technical, administrative, and educational. Since this report was published a good deal of thought has been given to the training of the teacher-librarian, and there is now a strong body of opinion in favor of postponing the last type of training until the teacher has had some practical experience of teaching in a school with a good library. The various conferences, lectures, and courses now being held are designed for practicing teachers. Only one is of any considerable length, viz., a ten-week course held in the summer term in the Homerton Training College at Cambridge.[44-46]

The School Library Association set up in 1948 a special subcommittee on training and qualifications to survey the whole field and to make recommendations. These would be too long to detail here, but the greatest stress is laid on the educational aspects and uses of the school library, and especially on personal experience and some piece of original inquiry.

On the question of a certificate or diploma, the present general view is very difficult to assess; probably it has not yet crystallized. There is evidence of a desire on the part of some for recognized requirements; others feel that the training of teacher-librarians is much more important than any question of "paper qualification." In any case there is no unanimity as to who should make such an award and on what conditions. The view of the School Library Association is that such a qualification is an educational rather than a "professional" one, that a diploma, if granted, should be given by an educational body, that it should be awarded only to qualified teachers with a certain minimum of teaching experience, and that the main emphasis should be on the educational side of school library work.

Library Premises.[19, 21, 47] In early thinking about library accommodation it was usually taken for granted that one room was needed, and discussion centered on its size. It was considered that the school library of minimum size should provide accommodation for the largest class in the school, plus a small number of individual pupils who might need to use it for private study. But when the conception of library periods became familiar, it was evident that instruction and practice in library work was usually incompatible with other uses

of the library, such as that of private study, and that for all practical purposes the library during a library period was out of action for the rest of the school. This was of little concern in small schools, e.g., in a "one-stream" secondary modern school containing one class per year, only four or five periods a week would be required. But with large schools the matter would be serious. A four-stream grammar school would need thirty-two, and the problem could only be solved by restricting the library periods to the younger classes, or by making them fortnightly or even three-weekly, or by bringing in temporarily a neighboring room. It is now, therefore, felt that where the size of a school warrants a very large library room; it is wise to divide it. It may be thought best to have two libraries, a senior one and a junior one, each covering the whole range of subjects and interests for those who use it, with permission for dual membership where this is helpful. Such a plan is better than to divide the two rooms between subjects.

But what is really needed is a group or complex of rooms—two main library rooms, a librarian's room, a store or stock room, and one or two small conference rooms where small groups of six or eight can work together without disturbing other users. In the present building situation one can only look upon such a solution as utopian. Most schools will have to be satisfied for a long time to come with a single room, the urgent need being to have it adequate.

Perhaps the most helpful and imaginative temporary, and perhaps permanent, solution is that suggested in the Ministry's recent Building Bulletin No. 2,[48] the relevant parts of which are reprinted and commented on by H. R. Mainwood in the *School Librarian*.[49] Here the fundamental idea is that the library shall be situated in close proximity to one of two rooms of classroom size, and to a "division room" and a "store room," any one of which may either serve its normal purpose or be brought into the library as need requires. This flexibility is characteristic of present planning, to make the most economical use of space and to provide for varying, and new, needs.

But apart from new building, which has been heavily reduced since the Korean War, most attention has been necessarily focused on improvisation as the only way of coping with the immediate situation. Much imaginative work has been done here. The commonest case is the conversion of a standard-size classroom into a library. Very unpromising rooms, sometimes festooned with pipes and equipped with heavy cupboards, have been turned into not unattractive library rooms.

Primary Schools. Under the 1944 Act, primary education [14, 15] covers

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three stages: Nursery, or "under five"; Infant, from five to seven; and Junior, from seven to eleven.

As previously mentioned, discussion took place in 1943 and onward about the provision of libraries in elementary schools, and this led to the "Joint Report" in 1945. The first urgent task after the war was to meet the needs of what had been the senior classes of the old elementary schools, now reorganized as secondary modern schools; but the case for libraries in primary schools was not lost sight of.

Primary schools differ from secondary schools in that the pupils are not differentiated into the three types of grammar, technical, and modern. The primary school includes all the children over the whole range of intellectual capacity from the brightest to the most backward. There is now a general concensus that, at any rate, for the junior stage, seven to eleven, there is a strong case for a school library, resting on three main arguments: the very wide range of intelligence, the eagerness to read shown by many children at this age, and the advantage of familiarizing children with a collection of books before the break to secondary education comes. Whether a general school library is the best way of bringing the younger children into contact with books is not certain; here the common opinion seems to be that attractive book-corners in classrooms are the better way. In view of this situation the School Library Association has taken measures to hold a short conference, of teachers and others, in the coming autumn, to consider the field as a whole.

There are two main problems of the future which call for solution, the one material and financial, the other educational. (1) The economic situation and the demands on labor and material will for a long while prevent any striking improvement in premises. The official policy is expresesd in Building Bulletin No. 2: ". . . economy should be achieved not by an unwise lowering of building standards but by careful investigation into the most suitable methods of construction and a careful apportionment of money." [50] Meanwhile, as indicated elsewhere, the utmost stress is laid on improvisation.

On the financial side the principle of the annual grant is coming to be accepted; but few schools have what can be regarded as completely adequate provision. Grants made during 1951 and 1952 to about forty grammar schools varied from £200 to about £15 a year, with an average of about £75 to £80. These figures do represent an advance on prewar grants, even when the rise in the cost of books is taken into account. The "Draft Report" [21] calculated that adequate provision for

a grammar school of six hundred would be about £160 at 1938 prices, so there is a long way still to go.

The most reasonable approach to the problem is probably to put the figure needed to maintain an adequate library against the total cost of maintaining the school, or with the cost of maintaining the school laboratory. A first rate library could be secured on a grant of considerably less than one per cent of the total amount spent on the school, and it serves *all* the activities of the institution. Conceivably its support gives better educational value, pound for pound, than any comparable expenditure. Nevertheless any such amount might appear large as a sum of money, and the authorities whose duty it would be to provide it would have to be reasonably convinced that it was well laid out. This brings up the second problem. (2) There is a great need to train teacher-librarians; but there is an even greater need to bring home to the teaching profession as a whole the possibilities of the school library, both generally and in the teaching of their own subject, so that their own teaching methods will involve its use; for it is as an educational force that the school library will stand or fall. Key points are: (a) the heads of schools, for the general planning of school work, and much of its character, lies in their hands; (b) the educational institution and training colleges, responsible respectively for educational research and for the training of students, for it is as the demand is felt and expressed that it is most certain to be met, and the present task is, above all, "conversion and enlightenment"; (c) the local education authorities, for they have to find the money. Fortunately a good school library well-administered and fully used is its own best advertisement.

Florence Horsbrugh,[51] the present Minister of Education, in her foreword to the Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 21, *The School Library,* says: "It may still be said of books even more truly than of films and broadcasts, that they are 'the golden key that opens the enchanted door'. Text-books alone, indispensable as they are, will not open this door, nor will they prove sufficient guides to those children who have passed through it. Boys and girls want books of quality and substance to match the growth of their own powers and their own imagination. Homes and friends can often help, and so can public and county libraries, but school libraries can help most of all."

In the foreword to *School Libraries Today,* Lester Smith quotes Richard Livingstone[52] as follows: "The most important room in any school is the library. If it contains good books, well chosen and well

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used, we may feel reasonably sure that, on the intellectual side at least, it is a place where real education is given. If the library is neglected, ill-equipped, dreary, unused, we may feel equally sure of the opposite."

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